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No. 6



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THE JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

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Rosco Chandler Ingalls

Director of the Los Angeles Junior College

sent us his idea of a professional budget for junior college instructors. We pass it along with the plea that you call it to the attention of your faculty members and urge them to subscribe to THE JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

It is my belief that the professional budget of each junior college instructor should include membership in his professional organizations, local, state, and national. It should include, also, his subscription to the *Junior College Journal*. The total expense for these combined items would not exceed \$12.00 per year. It would be difficult to find a better investment for \$12.00.

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THE JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

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No. 6

Is the Junior College Lagging Behind?

[EDITORIAL]

It is well known that lower-division programs of study in four-year colleges and universities have undergone extensive revision during the last few years. Hardly a college remains whose bulletin does not testify to certain fundamental changes in curriculum set-up, instructional procedure, and administrative spirit or point of view, as compared with practice in the same institution a half-decade ago.

The paucity of change, by contrast, in the curricula and procedures of typical junior colleges, is likewise familiar to all who have made intimate contact with junior college education. With a few minor exceptions the latter institutions have remained relatively unchanged, owing, it is claimed, to the fact that the accrediting institutions have been loath, thus far, to permit junior colleges to experiment with the same new procedures which are being introduced at the corresponding level in higher institutions. In view, however, of the rapid spread of the newer practices, and especially in view of their widespread introduction into scores of high schools, all over the country, it now goes without saying that the junior colleges of the land will undoubtedly be next to fall in

line—probably within the next five years.

What are the significant features of the new plans? To the present writer, who has followed the development of many of these plans with considerable interest, it appears that the essential characteristics of the new programs are three in number: (1) the setting up of many so-called survey or orientation courses designed to provide more or less continuous experience in each of six or eight basic fields of human activity; (2) the setting up of a "developmental" sequence in each field, designed to lead the student to build up progressively broader and deeper interests in and understanding of each field; and (3) the development of individualized teaching procedures by such means as varied assignments, voluntary extensive reading, individual projects of a wide variety, etc., all of which are designed to effect a more complete adaptation of instruction to individual needs, interests, and abilities than has ever before been attained.

Space does not permit even a brief description of all the methods being used to achieve these ends. Perhaps the best that can be done for this occasion is to present a kind

of composite program which is not a reproduction of any specific plan but which represents a working program including the more important features of a number of the newer plans. The sample plan follows:

The Humanities.—Either a two- or four-semester sequence including: (1) literature — for leisure-time reading and appreciation, rather than a technical survey; (2) language — to include functional composition, dramatics and play appreciation, "consumers' journalism, debating, etc.; (3) music appreciation, especially of the social history and significance of music — often given with the cooperation of a music teacher; (4) art appreciation, given in a similar way, stressing applications of art to all aspects of life, including the quest for beauty in all human activities and relationships.

The Natural Environment. — Either a two- or four-semester sequence including: (1) a survey of the physical universe (such as Newman's *Nature of the World and Man*, or Cleveland's *Modern Scientific Knowledge of Nature, Man, and Society*); (2) a developmental sequence of more or less technical science and mathematics taken either simultaneously with or following the survey course, the nature and amount of work done depending strictly on the individual ability and general life plan of each student.

The Social Environment. — Includes: (1) a one-year survey of contemporary civilization, emphasizing the trend of social thought and social progress with respect to the basic scheme of political and economic organization in force at the present time with some con-

sideration of past and proposed alternative schemes; (2) a "practical" introduction to psychology and philosophy as related to daily living; (3) a one-semester study of marriage and the home or family, stressing both social and personal aspects.

Specialization Electives.—To be chosen under guidance from academic or practical arts fields according to the educational and vocational plans of each student. Additional courses in liberal arts, as well as specialized work in science, mathematics, English, foreign languages, music, art, shop work, business education, home economics, etc., may be included according to individual needs and interests.

Health and Recreation. — Designed to develop each student's interest in acquiring a variety of recreational resources, hobbies, and other means for physical and social recreation, mental hygiene, and emotional poise.

This concrete picture does not take account of a number of other features of lower-division curriculum reorganization, such as the tendency to minimize (if not to abolish) credits and units, the marking system, and formal college entrance requirements. Nor can it show adequately the current tendency to emphasize the social aspects of every subject, as urged by Judd and others. It omits, likewise, any proper treatment of other important questions, such as the proper use of tests and measurements in the newer education. It only attempts to illustrate the general form of organization into which most of the more significant features of reorganization may be fitted.

FREDERICK J. WEERSING

Adjustment of Junior College Transfers

C. GILBERT WRENN*

It must be recognized at the outset that the adjustment of transfer students in a new institution is both individual and institutional in nature. Some students are socially mature and would become adjusted in the new institution under even the most disadvantageous circumstances, while some transfers are less mature than the average freshman. On the other hand, many problems are institutional in nature. Anything that I should say about the adjustment of transfer students at Stanford University might not apply elsewhere. However, as far as students are concerned, I believe we have a rather fair sampling of transfer students. Their problems are probably similar to the problems of transfers elsewhere.

LONGER PERIOD IS NEEDED

As a first postulate, I should like to state my belief that we must allow a longer period for the adjustment of transfer students than we have thought adequate in the past. One or two studies recently conducted at our university, and my own subjective impressions, convince me that we must allow for the transfer student about the same length of time for social and scholastic adjustment that we allow for the freshmen.

* Assistant Registrar and Director of Vocational Guidance, Stanford University, California. An address given at the annual Junior College Conference, Berkeley, California, July 5-6, 1934.

A study was recently made by Mr. Joel V. Berreman of the relative scholastic achievement of transfers and native Stanford students in Elementary Sociology. This study involved 827 students, or the total enrollment in this course in sociology over a period of ten quarters, from 1928 to 1933, of whom 475 were native Stanford students, and 352 were transfer students. The latter group were divided into "recent" and "former" transfers. The recent transfers had been in the University two quarters or less before enrolling in the sociology class; the so-called former transfers had been in residence from three to ten quarters before enrolling in the class.

A comparison of these two groups of transfers with the native Stanford students brought out striking differences. The recent transfers were lower than the native students in percentile grades in sociology by a significant difference, the critical ratio being 4.7. This group of recent transfers, however, was also considerably lower in Thorndike scores than the native Stanford students, the critical ratio being 4.0. On the other hand, the former transfers had sociology grades just about equal to those of the native Stanford students, with a critical ratio of 0.4; and, likewise, their Thorndike grades were nearly equal to those of the native Stanford students, with a critical ratio of 1.0.

It is evident, therefore, that the

recent transfers who had enrolled in the sociology class had a somewhat lower native Thorndike ability than had the former transfers. In other words, the University has been getting a little poorer quality of transfer students among those who enrolled in the sociology class soon after entering the University. On the other hand, the difference in the grades of the recent and former transfers could not be entirely accounted for by Thorndike scores. The difference in sociology grades between the recent and former transfers gave a critical ratio of 2.4, whereas the difference in Thorndike scores between these two groups of transfers gave a critical ratio of 1.5. Hence one is brought to the conclusion that the superior grades of the transfer students (who had been in the University for a longer period of time before enrolling in the sociology class) are at least partially accounted for by their better adjustment to the university atmosphere.

It may be of interest to note in passing that the small number of sophomore transfers did very much better work in sociology class than did the native Stanford students of the sophomore level. Another incidental finding was that there was no reliably significant difference in sociology grades between transfers from senior colleges and those from junior colleges.

TRANSFERS ARE NEW STUDENTS

The second point that I should like to make regarding the adjustment of transfer students is that many of their problems are similar to those of the freshman in the university. Although the junior transfer is two years older, and pre-

sumably the graduate of a junior college or the lower division in a university, and although the university is apt to consider him as a student on a par with its own junior students, the adjustment problems which he feels during his first quarter in the university are very largely those of freshmen.

A study has been made at Stanford University for two successive years of the adjustment problems of freshmen and junior transfer students during their first quarter in the University. The study of the past year, made by Miss Mildred Garrett and the writer, resulted in a 70 per cent reply from all freshmen and transfer students who were asked for information. The reactions of the students themselves to their problems were given at the beginning of their second quarter, on a check-list of twenty-one adjustment problems. There was a further space for a statement of the most difficult subject during the first quarter, and a check-list of reasons for difficulty with this subject.

On the general adjustment problems there was more agreement than disagreement as to the extent that transfer students felt given problems in the same degree as did the freshmen. In the majority of cases the same percentage of each group checked a given problem. On some problems the transfers had a much easier time than the freshmen. They were much better adjusted to the problem of "budgeting of time" than were the freshmen, with 18 per cent of them checking this problem as serious, against 43 per cent of the freshmen. They were somewhat better adjusted in their "habits of reading," 23 per cent of

the transfers checking this against 36 per cent of the freshmen. This, of course, still leaves approximately one-fourth of the transfers who confess that slow reading is a major adjustment problem.

The transfers were definitely worse off than the freshmen in the following points: 24 per cent of them, as against 13 per cent in the freshmen, signified that the "indifference of instructors" was a serious problem. "Living arrangements" as a problem troubled slightly more of the transfers than the freshmen, 19 per cent compared with 12 per cent. A slightly higher percentage of transfers checked the item "higher standards of work" than did the freshmen. However, the percentage given is significant for each, since 46 per cent of the transfers and 41 per cent of the freshmen checked "higher standards of work" in the university as being a cause for serious adjustment difficulty during the first quarter. It seems obvious from the foregoing that the distinctive adjustment problems of the transfers are more apt to be social and personal in nature than academic.

A division was next made between transfers from junior colleges and those from senior colleges. The transfers from senior colleges to a considerably greater degree than transfers from junior colleges were troubled by the problem of "new associates"; 24 per cent of the senior college transfers checked this against 8 per cent of the junior college transfers. It seems that the making of friends is a problem faced by transfers from larger institutions to a greater degree than that of transfers from the more or less local junior colleges. On the

other hand, a striking difference was found between these two groups of transfers on the problem of "new independence," referring to the independence which transfers find in the university in the selection of courses, living arrangements, and in everything involved in their living twenty-four hours a day. This was checked by 16 per cent of the junior college transfers against none of those from senior colleges. In other words, one-sixth of the junior college transfers were evidently not accustomed to social and academic independence.

When the reasons for difficulty with their "most difficult subject" were examined, the most striking difference between freshmen and transfers came out in relation to the statement "could not follow lectures." Twenty-one per cent of the transfers checked this as the reason for difficulty against 10 per cent of the freshmen. The "most difficult subject" which transfers checked most commonly was that of economics. One-fourth of the total transfers checked this as the most difficult subject, and when these blanks were examined, 47 per cent of them checked "could not follow lecture" and 37 per cent of them checked "inadequate subject background" as the causes of greatest difficulty. These points may be of some significance to the junior colleges and the colleges from which these transfers came.

Again, I should like to state that the gap between a junior college and a university is greater than many of us in either institution have yet been willing to admit. This gap may have nothing whatsoever to do with the quality of academic work carried on in the junior col-

leges; it may refer simply to the fact of the gap that exists for students coming from junior and senior colleges to the university. We in the university must make some provision for meeting these needs. On the other hand, it is likewise possible that the instructors in the junior colleges could better prepare students for the university if they knew the difficulties which students meet at the university level.

It may be of interest to know that this study of the adjustment problems of freshmen is being carried out in a number of California colleges this year and has also been carried out at Oregon State College, using the same check-list as that constructed for the Stanford study. I do not know of equally extensive studies being made of the adjustment problems of the transfer students. The studies made by Dr. Hill at the University of California are illustrative, while some excellent suggestions can be gained from Volume V of the recent *University of Chicago Survey*.

MEETING SOME OF THESE PROBLEMS

Now after all is said and done, and I have indicated that we are beginning to be aware of some of the difficulties which transfers meet, are we doing anything about it at Stanford University? My answer is that we are, "slowly but surely." We are beginning to make some adjustments in our program, but not everything that we should like to do has by any means been accomplished. I should probably make clear at this point that our guidance philosophy at Stanford University is that all assistance given to the student should be sought for

by the student as the result of a felt need. "Nothing should be done for the student that he can do for himself." This means that the students' privilege of self-determination is preserved, and the students are not "put through the mill" of a series of required interviews. The counselor's task is therefore twofold: (1) Making himself personally very available to students, and (2) constructing a program of assistance of which students can avail themselves.

In the first place, as a result of the study last mentioned, a certain proportion of rooms in the dormitories has been set aside for transfer students. Transfer students now have a good likelihood of living on the campus in a dormitory if they so desire. This will naturally assist in their adjustment to campus life. The time will come, I think, when we will insist on all transfers living in dormitories, whether they volunteer to do so or not, and for the same reasons that we now insist on all freshmen living in dormitories.

As a second point, next fall the transfers will be given the privilege of taking a reading test and of profiting from the reading and study-habits training which we give to our freshmen. This will be voluntary with the transfers, although the test is compulsory for freshmen.

Third, as a part of the experimental tryout of the so-called "Personal Information Blanks," with which a Committee of the California Educational Research Association has been working, eight junior colleges in the northern part of the state are sending in personal information blanks on their transfers to

Stanford University. Already I have been able to select some students whom I know will have definite adjustment difficulties. Early in the academic year we will endeavor to make them acquainted with the resources of the University for helping them with any problems that may arise.

Furthermore, a letter will go out from the Administration this summer for the first time to all transfer students, welcoming them to the University. This letter will mention the rooming arrangements which have been provided for them. It will be stated that the Registrar's office will be used as a clearing-house for the problems and questions of the transfer student. This letter, which will be signed by the writer of this article, will also indicate him as a "trouble-shooter" for transfers.

In the fifth place, we are considering having a pre-registration meeting of all transfer students, indicating to them what their particular registration techniques may be, where the various department heads can be found, what they can do if they are not sure of the major department in which they wish to enroll, and similar matters.

Another device is being carried out for next fall in the utilization of old transfers to act as "transfer guides" for the new men. Twenty old transfer students, that is, transfers of the past year, have signed up as being willing to take on from five to ten new transfer students and guide them through the first few weeks of the University. Some time in the middle of the summer a letter will be sent to each of these transfer guides, giving them the names of certain students who have

up to that date been admitted to the University as transfers for next fall. The names assigned to any particular transfer guide will as nearly as possible be those coming from his local college. He may be able to see some of them during the summer; and, if not, he is asked to drop them a note indicating that he will be on hand and willing to help them when they arrive at the University. This type of service takes a good bit of organization, and I am not sure how well we can make it work for the first year, but at least it will be tried.

This paper may have at least set up questions in your mind. I assure you that I feel very humble about knowing how to assist transfers adjust themselves to the University campus. We are beginning to learn a little of some of their problems, but we are still densely ignorant, in an institutional way, of how to meet many of them. I am definitely convinced, however, that the transfer student is a new student in every sense of the word. He needs help as a new student, and needs this over a considerable period of time.

The most serious educational problem confronting the American people today is that of devising ways and means for the proper education, adjustment, and assimilation of the millions of young people of the post-secondary area. Just as the high school has for many years been thought of as the people's college, the time has now arrived for the reorganized junior college to take this place.—GEORGE E. CARROTHERS, before Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.

The Junior College and the Community

EMILY B. SMITH*

There is probably no unit in our present system of education which can mean so much to a community, and the community to the institution, as the municipal junior college. Although the idea of the municipal junior college is comparatively young, the public is rapidly turning toward it as a solution of a difficult educational problem which has been created by the widespread democratization of our institutions of higher learning.

In the opinion of the writer, which has grown out of experience in municipal junior college work, there is no institution in a city that can do as much for a community, and in turn be affected as much by the spirit of the community, as the municipal junior college. As she firmly believes the latter opinion she has reacted with considerable satisfaction to the evidences of interest in the junior college which she has found in Oklahoma, while in many cases her reaction has been one of concern.

Satisfaction has been inspired by the community leaders who see in a junior college an opportunity of bridging the wide gap between our carefully guided, standardized, and regimented high schools and our necessarily self-directed adult life. On the other hand the junior college leader should feel concern when a citizen says, "We want a junior college so that our students can get two years of college work cheaper."

*Dean, Altus Junior College, Altus, Oklahoma.

Such comments suggest that mail-order college courses must be weakening and a new means of cheap college work must be found, so that he who breathes within the walls of an institution called a college will be prepared to enter that field of specialization or that white-collared position, not job, that the education insurance salesman has pictured so graphically. If cheapness and two years of college credit are the paramount aims of the municipal college, may some kind spirit preserve us.

THE ALTUS EXPERIMENT

Since 1926 Altus has had what was termed a municipal two-year junior college, which, like the old Holy Roman Empire, that was neither holy, Roman, nor an empire, was neither municipal nor a college in any sense other than the fact that the students were carted through certain academic textbooks, which ended in hours of credit tagged with an evaluating letter.

Beginning in the summer of 1933 it was decided that the tottering Altus Junior College should be made a real municipal institution and a real college, or else discontinued. The superintendent of schools, A. G. Steele, was very sympathetic with the idea. A plan of approach was made, which like most plans has been modified a number of times, but which is proving to be most enlightening as to the value of a junior college to a community and a community to the college.

Every effort was made to analyze the situation honestly. The result of our investigation showed we had a college offering two years of study which was absolutely sound in the academic prescription of our state and college accrediting agencies. We had a faculty of five members who devoted part of their time to a lonely little group of twenty-seven students. Of this faculty, two were known to be unfavorable to "standardized" teaching, the attitude of the others was unknown, but at least they had submitted to the seemingly inevitable. Outside the school circle it might be liberally estimated that one-fifth of the people of the community knew a municipal college existed.

Into this situation came the ultimatum from the accrediting agencies that if we were planning to continue a two-year college we must raise the enrollment to a minimum of sixty students. The situation looked discouraging, but there are always a few who believe that the other side may be brighter. The committee had such individuals on it, so that plans were begun for the experiment.

First, why did we want a college? Why should it continue to exist? We felt that the location warranted the existence. Altus lies in the center of an agricultural area with no general college within one hundred miles. Accredited consolidated high schools surround it, while the topography of the country, the mildness of the winters, and good roads make commuting easy. The city of Altus, with a population of approximately ten thousand, made it reasonable that there should be a sufficiently large student body who needed and wanted a college.

PURPOSE OF THE COLLEGE

What should be the purpose of the college? Three alternatives were possible: (1) Should it be an elongation of high-school work? (2) Should it be preparatory to entrance with junior standing into higher institutions? (3) Should it offer a curriculum sufficiently general to make it possible to teach students to learn to live, yet with courses sufficiently standardized that a student planning specialization could be guided along his own line of interest? The third alternative was adopted. It sounded pretty, but how should such a goal be realized?

The local board of education approved the committee's goal. Next the state accrediting agencies were approached. They were interested in the experiment and granted the college a year of probation. Two months remained for preparation before school was to open.

The first step in the experiment was to create a municipal spirit. Articles were published in the local newspapers, programs broadcast over the commercial station, talks made to the civic clubs, the chamber of commerce, and the missionary societies. Even bridge clubs and baby culture clubs began to talk junior college. Into this field came the NRA and the Blue Eagle. Popular attention was turned to a discussion of leisure hours and the junior college.

Meanwhile literature was being sent to seniors of near-by communities who had graduated in the spring. Uncertainty as to enrollment made it inadvisable to attempt an extensive change in the curriculum, but the instructors back of the established insignias were making

changes in their attitudes as well as in their courses.

The college opened in September, with no miracle enrollment, but with an encouraging total of forty-two students. The experiment was launched, what of its voyage? In order to perpetuate the movement two lines of activity were developed, the first with the community, the second within the school.

COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

A municipal junior college should be the center of community life was the belief of the promoters. The problem was, how? An excellent dramatic instructor was in town. Why not a Little Theatre for an intellectual community movement? Plans were begun, and the year closed with a Little Theatre well organized, the College the center, a successful season, and 450 people actively participating in the organization. As a result of the interest developed a dramatic department was added the second semester to the college curriculum. So rapidly has interest grown in dramatics that the fall of 1934 found in the city not only a Little Theatre, but an adult dramatic class meeting at night, a college class in dramatic appreciation, a college workshop open to citizens who are members or patrons of the Little Theatre, and a college dramatic guild laboratory for the writing of plays and criticisms.

A second community interest was an Art Week sponsored by the College and participated in by every school within the system as well as by the entire community. Students from all the schools presented the art programs under the directions

of the College. Proceeds from the week were distributed among the schools.

A third activity was a Music Week in the community. As a result a music department was established in the College with a special course in music appreciation, a purely non-technical course designed to make more intelligent listeners. All the federated music clubs of the city are co-operating with this department. The radio, motion pictures, and other mechanical devices are used as far as possible. Students who wish to do so are allowed to belong to the municipal band, the college choruses, and the quartets. For those of special talent one 45-minute period a week is given for individual instruction and conference.

So intense was municipal and community interest in the spring of 1934 that two municipal committees were appointed, one to direct public relations with the College, the other to direct student recreation in the College and community. Out of this same interest has come a popular demand for athletics, which the town is backing and supporting. In addition to this community interest, twenty-four scholarships are being offered by the city to deserving and capable students. No longer is it a question of creating interest in the municipal junior college, but it is now a problem of control and direction. The College has become municipal, and is the center of worthwhile civic activities.

COLLEGE DEVELOPMENTS

While this municipal and community interest has been spreading without, progress has kept pace

within the College. With the opening of school in September 1933 a spirit of defeatism was still apparent in the halls. Seniors of the preceding year remembered the close of school when it was said, "This will be the last year." Resurrection is much more difficult than creation.

Soon after the opening of school the entire student body was called together. This spirit of defeatism was discussed openly by teachers and students. The result was a student-teacher organization with a constitution written under the guidance of the government classes. The constitution sparkles with the code theories of 1933, the constitutional forms of the past, and the spirit of youth. By the second semester student activities were regulated to a point that a budget had been made by the students and a student program financed by a student activity ticket which was costing the students twelve cents per week. College enthusiasm replaced defeatism. Enrollment rose from 42 students in September to 86 in January and reached 157 at the opening of college last October.

DEBATE INSTITUTE

One of the most constructive programs within the school is the annual Debate Institute sponsored in December. This Institute was originated in 1932 by a group interested in forensics. It consists of a two-day program during which the general technique of debating is discussed, an interpretation of the current high-school and junior college debate questions given by capable individuals, and two demonstration debates held, one for high schools and one for junior colleges. Following the debates a critical dis-

cussion is held and a round table analysis conducted. In addition to the planned program, any school or team wishing to do so may match practice debates.

Debaters, students of public speaking, coaches, and school administrators are invited to this Institute from all the high schools in the Oklahoma Southwest Teachers District, all the junior colleges of the state, and other schools which have indicated interest. In December of 1933 there were 250 representatives from 20 counties in the state, and from schools in Texas and Kansas. Rather than being an Institute for a limited number who were interested only in forensics, the entire College student body was interested, and the community cooperated with entertaining the visitors. In 1934 there was an attendance of 325 high-school and junior college debaters from 36 institutions.

Resulting from the interest created in forensics a speech department has been established in the College, offering courses in the various fields. One short course is confined to speaking for clubs and dinners. A chapter of Phi Rho Pi, the national junior college debating fraternity, has been installed.

ACADEMIC SUBJECTS

In the teaching of academic subjects there has been considerable change, but it is impossible, in a general discussion such as this one, to give adequate details as to this change. The keynote of the teaching has been to give courses which will make cultured people, ready to live, to be thoughtful citizens, good housewives, efficient grocery clerks, and even college-minded ditch dig-

gers if necessary. Some of the greatest people we have are those wearing overalls. If they can live during their leisure moments more happily, will the community not be more desirable, and our nation and state on the upward grade? We strive not to develop textbook technicians or prerequisite specialists, although the institution is not unmindful of the latter. Every student is assigned to an instructor for conferences. If that student has already decided what he wants to do he is either placed under the guidance of the instructor in the institution who has studied his special interest, or the instructor to whom he was assigned does all he can to assist. Readings and courses of study are suggested, institutions are investigated, and if there is any way to do so practical observances are advised. In this way students interested in special fields may go on, while the remaining 80 per cent of the class is not sacrificed to the specialist. It is not unusual for students to change their interest, neither is it unusual for them to become interested in some special field after they have merely followed a general course in the beginning of the year.

Since the school is small, so-called remedial courses are conducted by the advisory method, and by the students attending high-school classes in courses where they are deficient.

Three courses, which previously have not been offered in the College, are being tried during 1934-35. One of these courses is physics, taught as an orientation and appreciation course with a demonstration laboratory for the entire class, and with permissive individual laboratory for those especially interested. A second course is in social science,

listed as Government 11. Current and contemporary radicalisms and conservatism in political doctrines and theories are being studied from political, philosophical, and psychological points of view. A third course is in etiquette. A college man or woman is expected to know how to act in public. In this course customs, superstitions, and absurdities of our conventions, as well as the actual mechanisms of modern etiquette, are discussed. Tasteful and correct costumes and similar problems are a part of the course. It is a course to help future hosts and hostesses. No credit is given, but it is part of the social science program, and references to it are included in the social science examinations.

A professional experiment which is being conducted and studied by the social science department of the college is to work out a social studies curriculum for the entire system beginning with the first grade and going through the junior college. The entire social science faculty of the system, the county superintendent, and many teachers from outside schools are co-operating in this study.

A year and a half is too short a time to judge justly the value of a junior college to a community, but this short experience already has convinced Altus that it is the greatest opportunity for community development and student advancement that has ever been started. Doubtlessly some things will be changed, others added, but all who have worked with the experiment feel convinced that the municipal junior college and the community can each help the other more than anyone will ever know.

A Junior College Foreign-Trade Curriculum

JOHN A. SOWERS*

Today it is evident more than ever before to thoughtful men, that there is need for a better and keener appreciation of what foreign trade is and what it means to the welfare of every citizen. It is the purpose in this paper to present some of the aspects of foreign trade that, in the judgment of the author, should receive consideration on the part of junior colleges in the United States. As the junior college expands, many of our problems in education can be most effectively solved in this institution. It becomes the logical place to set up curricula to give the young men and women at this educational level the information and training they need.

Never before in the history of this country have we been presented with more perplexing and complicated problems. These problems require the best minds of our land—trained men and women capable of comprehending the importance of the situation, and with the ability to find the best possible solution. We have passed beyond the day when a few politicians can make our laws, determine our destiny, and achieve results sufficiently satisfactory that the general public will find no fault with the conditions under which they have to live.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONSHIPS

We no longer live apart in small communities, with no thought of conditions other than our own. Whether we realize it or not we are

a community of nations. Readjustments of a political, economic, social, or moral nature are our concern. To successfully project national plans we must survey the entire international situation. A study of agricultural and manufacturing conditions in the different countries of the world shows clearly the economic interdependence of nations. No one country produces within its borders all the necessities and near essentials required for the welfare and happiness of its people. Each nation contributes to the vast number of raw materials and finished products consumed throughout the world, and each receives from its neighbors products of the soil and of the factory which are foreign to its home industry.

We produce in order to consume, and increased production is desirable because it makes possible increased consumption. Consumption of goods is the end and object of all economic processes. This is true of foreign trade as well as domestic trade. We produce goods and export them, in order to obtain other goods in greater quantity or the same amount of goods at less inconvenience than if we tried to produce these goods ourselves. This is the object and justification of all trade, domestic or foreign.

The economic chaos resulting from the World War placed added responsibilities on the United States. With our resources unimpaired our exports grew tremendously. But heavier shipments of our products to foreign markets must be balanced by imports into the United

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States. As a creditor to which many countries are heavily indebted, the United States is faced with the problem of contributing to the economic restoration of the world by means of an increase in the consumption of commodities grown and manufactured abroad.

We do not need to go further into this point nor mention the conditions which surround us today. The rôle of the United States in international trade will become more important in shaping the future course of events. The conditions of today call for wise and diplomatic treatment. The advantages of training, keen intelligence, broad knowledge, and wide sympathy were never before so emphatic.

Therefore, it is the purpose of this paper to show what foreign trade really is, what important place it occupies and must occupy in our everyday existence, and why, therefore, we should provide more training in this increasingly vital field of commerce in the junior college. This is suggested, first, because of the need on the part of everyone for a correct understanding and appreciation of world affairs. Second, because of the possibility of giving vocational training in foreign trade as a two-year terminal curriculum in the junior college. Thirdly, to provide preparatory courses in foreign trade for those who will continue their work in higher institutions. As the provision of preparatory training for continuation in higher institutions offers little difficulty, this paper will be devoted to the first two phases only.

WHAT IS FOREIGN TRADE?

First, what is foreign trade? Foreign trade is simply the movement

of commodities and services to and from the domestic borders of our country to other countries. Does this present any difficulty? No, except as we create difficulties. As regards the actual mechanics of trade there is absolutely no difference between the movement of goods between San Francisco and New York, and San Francisco and Mexico City, yet to Mexico City is foreign trade. Granting the fact that the business men of Mexico speak a different language, have a different unit of money and of measurement, still the business of buying and selling is exactly the same in both transactions. Likewise the motives and the economics back of buying and selling are the same the world over, although developed to different levels in the various parts of the world.

The next question we might ask is, why engage in foreign trade, is not our country self-sufficient? This question suggests a number of answers. It might be asked, are we as individuals capable of self-sufficiency? The answer today is that such would be difficult but possible. Our present state of living is one secured through centuries of progress, scientific development and advancement, until the existing highly specialized society is attained. We might live on a much less specialized plane but to do so would mean depriving ourselves of the achievements of mankind. We might devote our energies to the production of those things we need, and in a country so abundantly endowed as ours we might in a large measure be successful in our isolated existence, but it would be impossible to live as well as we do today. Our standard of living would have to be

materially lowered. Our entire economic and social life would have to be radically readjusted.

What proportion of our trade is foreign trade? Normally about 10 per cent of our aggregate trade is foreign, with the export figure larger than that for imports. To the careless observer, or to the poorly informed and illogical thinker, 10 per cent seems to be a very small figure to be of much importance—much ado about nothing. In passing it may be remarked that this often means the difference between profit and loss, success and failure. Personally, all of us know what a 10 per cent cut in salary means.

That 10 per cent means also that more than seven million Americans are directly or indirectly dependent upon foreign trade for their livelihood. In some industries the percentage mounts much higher. Over 50 per cent of our raw cotton is exported, 40 per cent of our leaf and unmanufactured tobacco, 55 per cent of our tractors, 34 per cent of our lubricating oils, 30 per cent of our refined gasoline, 45 per cent of our dried fruits, 30 per cent of our canned fruits, and large portions of hundreds of others. This fact is true on the import side as well. A few of the commonplace items of which we produce nothing or very little are tea, silk, coffee, tin, rubber, manganese, potash, nitrate, and a host of others.

EFFECT ON INDIVIDUALS

How are we as individuals affected by foreign trade? To take one example, we find that according to compilations made, approximately twelve million people in this country depend upon the price of cotton and the size of the crop for their

livelihood. If 50 per cent of our cotton goes abroad, it means that if our foreign markets disappear about six million people would lose their present livelihood. But this alarming and significant fact is not all. When the cotton exports of Texas begin to fall off, the Texan cotton grower cannot purchase an automobile from Michigan, agricultural machinery from Illinois, rubber tires from Ohio, clothing from New York, or many other things he wants and needs. Each of these industries suffers and has to curtail production, and cut down on employment, with a consequent reduction in other branches of industry. Not just one industry is affected, but practically all industries. This interdependence of industry is often overlooked.

The people working in the canning factories of California canning fruits and vegetables are not aware of the fact that 25 to 60 per cent of these goods go overseas, and that part of the money to pay their wages comes from other countries. Every single state in the Union supplies some goods that find their market in foreign lands, and every single state is, therefore, interested in the trend of international commerce.

California ranks third among the forty-eight states in the value of the products shipped abroad. In years of declining prices she sold total products in 1931 valued at \$213,740,582 and in 1932 a total of \$149,200,991. This does not include millions of dollars received by railroads, ocean carriers, banks, insurance companies, freight forwarders, longshoremen, merchants, and others engaged in the handling of these transactions.

The importance of foreign trade to those industries and institutions

serving commerce has been suggested above. When our export business was prosperous and we were shipping large quantities of goods from this country, as well as importing from abroad, the railroads derived a substantial portion of their income from the movement of these products and a very large part of that income went to pay the railroad workers and those who had railroad investments.

Without commerce, our ports with their facilities for handling large tonnages, representing investments of hundreds of millions of dollars, would be practically worthless. Our coastal and intercoastal trade would require few terminals, warehouses, and other facilities. Then, too, our great merchant fleets would have no cargoes, so we would need no ships or very few. In the manufacture of ships, products come from every one of the forty-eight states, and over 40 per cent of the cost of a vessel goes to labor for wages. This illustrates in still another way the effect of international trade upon our economic welfare.

What an impressive and majestic sight to see one of our modern liners entering a port to discharge and take on cargo and passengers! But it is not alone majestic and pleasing to the eye, it means food, clothing, shelter, and employment for thousands. If we should follow these commodities as they leave the vessel and move into the various channels of trade, we would see thousands busily employed, and many more indirectly affected.

All large banking institutions located in our principal trade centers have foreign departments that look after the financing of international commerce. Millions of dollars worth

of business by marine insurance companies safeguards this trade and their carriers—evenly distributing risks so that commerce may be carried on under stable and profitable conditions. What would happen to these industries and the thousands dependent upon them if our foreign trade were gone?

It is worth remembering, too, that where trade goes it adds to the comfort and convenience of people, raising their standards of living, and decreasing the burden of their labors. This is real value. Dollars and cents do not alone measure the value of trade; it lies in the fact that trade gives employment to millions of people here and adds its useful service to millions of people in other countries.

Too often we are told that the markets of the world are no longer available to us because so many countries are becoming modernized and industrialized. In recent years this has been one of the principal criticisms directed at foreign trade. Great Britain, a highly industrialized country, has been our largest customer from the beginning and still holds first place. It is a gross misconception held by many that foreign trade is intended for half-civilized peoples, and as soon as they become accustomed to using the products of present-day civilization, trade stops.

SIGNIFICANCE FOR JUNIOR COLLEGES

Students in every junior college should be aware of the importance of these elementary principles. We need young people with the mental equipment and the facts to assist them in solving the momentous problems which confront us today. Training should and must be pro-

vided for those branches of commerce that reach out over our borders to other lands. These we shall mention later, but over and above that we need clear thinking on the part of every citizen, not of leaders alone. Here is the unique opportunity for the junior college, wherein is completed the formal general education for thousands of young people, of providing the basis if not the real structure for thinking out clearly and wisely to a successful conclusion the questions which are bound to present themselves.

Questions of war debt payments, trade barriers in the form of tariffs, embargoes, sanitary restrictions and quotas, foreign exchange restrictions, national economic self-sufficiency, disarmament—these are problems that confront the American people in every state—coastal or inland. How are they to be solved? We need fact-minded citizens who will produce the proper type of legislation and will direct their energies along channels of real productiveness. We cannot do a good job of thinking, resulting in sane, intelligent public opinion unless we know the facts and can think clearly about them. Our educational institutions, particularly the junior college, should meet this need.

The question of imports will serve to illustrate the point. In discussing foreign trade we think principally of exports. It is common knowledge that if one buys he must sell, and vice versa—that there must be purchasing power in order to purchase, but in the United States we have been trying to avoid this axiom ever since 1918 in our international trade. Imports pay for exports, including invisible as well as visible items, and yet many have refused

to admit we could not forever continue to sell our surplus in other lands and make no provisions for the means to pay for it. As Walter Lippmann recently stated, "The foreigner cannot print American dollars. He might borrow them but that only means he has to pay them back later, and if he has borrowed too many dollars, he cannot pay them back."

It might even be said that it is just as important that every junior college student gain a correct understanding of the principles of international trade as of American government, a required subject in many state universities.

Finally, another consideration is the provision for training in foreign trade. We need men and women who have been prepared for this branch of commerce as we prepare for other vocations. We have made many mistakes and lost many opportunities, because we have not had the right man for the job. Only a few of the fields can be mentioned here—exporting, importing, ocean shipping, marine insurance, international banking, and freight forwarding. In addition in the government service there are the consular and diplomatic fields, the various phases of the department of commerce, the customs service, and others.

Foreign trade is permanently a part of everyday existence—no longer foreign—in the sense that it is not ours. We should make possible this needed and desired training in such an increasingly important field of endeavor to the students of our junior colleges. Suitable junior college curricula for these phases of foreign trade can be set up without much difficulty.

What Do English Instructors Teach?

WILLIAM MCKINLEY STENSAAS*

English instructors everywhere are continually asked such questions as "What do English instructors teach in their English classes?" "Why is it that many students cannot distinguish between nouns and prepositions or verbs and adverbs?" "If the language instructors refer to such expressions as parts of speech, gerunds, infinitives, participles, voice, mode, tense, case, inflection, declension, comparison, or conjugation, why do they appear to be unheard-of terms to so many students?"

For a number of years the writer, as well as many other English instructors, has observed these facts in his junior college composition classes. It is also generally known that many students are unable to write simple paragraphs and by far the greater percentage are hopelessly lost if asked to give an analysis of a sentence. Because of criticisms that have been made against the writer for his dogged insistence upon students' learning fundamentals in freshman composition classes, and because of the criticisms of the English instructors in general, it is the writer's purpose to present facts resulting from an English entrance examination which indicate that a knowledge of the fundamentals of English has an important place not only in high-school but also in junior college English composition classes.

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At the present time there is a tendency on the part of instructors to minimize the emphasis upon the fundamental structure of a sentence and to place the emphasis upon the reading of good literature. The reading and study of good literature is important, but too often it is merely an escape from the more difficult and slavish duties of an English instructor. In many cases the students are the ones who suffer embarrassment later in the other college classes through no fault of their own. Too often the English instructors themselves do not have a thorough knowledge of the fundamentals; consequently the fundamentals of sentence structure are not stressed. Likewise, in turning to free reading as an escape and not as a better plan, often the instructors are not qualified to guide the students in their reading. As a result, the student has gained very little from the instruction, but the instructors have learned much and have received their salary checks each month.

It is generally known that college instructors credit the high-school instructors, the high-school instructors credit the elementary teachers, the elementary teachers credit the parents, and the parents credit the instructors of the previous generations, not for the knowledge of English they possess, but for the lack of knowledge of the English language on the part of the students and themselves. As yet, evi-

dently no one has devised a plan whereby these faults may be corrected. The same "unpardonable sin" continues to be practiced by those who make the severest criticisms. The writer's purpose is not to condemn anyone for the present conditions but to make certain suggestions which, it is hoped, will help the student to do better work in his English class as well as in all other classes in high school and in junior college.

English instructors alone are not entirely accountable (thank Heaven!) for existing conditions. Men and women who have been given the responsibility of employing teachers have not realized the importance of the English courses. Too often instructors who have, at the most, one or two semesters of composition, and occasionally one survey course in English literature, have been asked to teach a class in composition. It is not uncommon, especially in the smaller high schools, to find the instructors of mathematics, history, foreign language, science, physical education, or domestic science conducting classes in composition. It is not the writer's purpose to infer that these instructors are not capable English instructors but most of them are naturally unprepared to teach composition. Through no fault or choice of their own, they have been assigned to these classes. It is true that a certain percentage, through natural ability, do commendable work. These men and women apparently are assigned to teach these classes on the assumption that any person who has a college degree, and who has been born and reared in an English-speaking nation, is qualified to teach English. On the

other hand, instructors who have specialized in English are likely to stress the literary phases of the course and fail to emphasize the fundamentals of sentence structure; consequently the students appear to be ignorant of the English language. This ignorance is especially noticeable in foreign-language classes. Fortunately, there are English instructors and college students who do find the study of the fundamentals interesting and fascinating without losing but increasing the literary values of the course.

At the present time the writer is teaching four classes in college composition and two classes in English A in the junior college. Every week students from the classes in English A volunteer the information that they are happy to take the course because it aids them in the study of foreign language, English I composition, and other courses. Often students linger at the end of the period to inform the instructor of the fact that they had never before realized the study of the "so-called dry" fundamentals of English could be so interesting. Since no credit is given for English A, this fact becomes even more significant.

At the opening of the second semester the writer was interested in determining whether or not students who knew fundamentals of English would write better essays on suggested subjects. In order to find this out, the English entrance examination was divided into three parts. The first part of the examination consisted of fifty-five sentences in which the students were asked to underline the correct word in the parenthesis in each sentence. During the second part of the examination students were given a para-

graph to capitalize and punctuate correctly. This paragraph was copied, without capitals or punctuation, from the essay "Why We Read," by Jay Broadus Hubbell.¹ The third period of the examination was given to writing an essay of approximately four hundred words, after first constructing an outline for the essay. The students were graded on spelling, punctuation, content, organization, and effective expression. The papers were read by five members of the English Department. The ten essay subjects suggested were: "The Influence of the American Newspaper"; "My Favorite Newspaper and Why I Prefer It"; "My Favorite Magazine and Why I Prefer It"; "Interesting Sidelights on Persons I Know"; "What I Like in Poetry"; "My Experience in Learning to Write Compositions"; "Civilization Is Progressing"; "What the World Has Learned from the Depression"; "My Favorite Novelist, Dramatist, Poet, or Essayist"; "Bad Results of Good Intentions."

The organization of the examination in terms of points and time was as follows:

	Time (minutes)	Points
Grammar	15	55
Punctuation	15	30
Essay	90	65
Total	120	150

Although there were only 105 students who took the examination, twenty-nine different high schools in eleven states were represented in the group. The fact that there was such a comparatively small number decreases the value of the results; nevertheless, they were interesting

and apparently indicate that the study of fundamentals is important to the students if not to the instructors. A summary of results follows:

	Median	Average	Range
Grammar	23	22.2	-25 to 43
Punctuation ...	23	22.2	0 to 29
Essay	50	49.0	0 to 62

All students, fifty-eight in number, who did not make a total of 100 points or more were assigned to English A. Twenty-eight students made a median grade or better in all three divisions, and twenty-four were below the median in all three divisions. Only sixteen students who made a median grade or better on the essay were below the median in grammar. Only eighteen students who made a median grade or better in grammar were below the median on the essay. Forty-three students who were below the median in grammar also were below the median on the essay.

From the results of this examination, it appears that students who know more of the fundamentals of grammar apparently are able to write better essays. Possibly those who wrote the better essays were naturally more intelligent. Whether this be the case or not, it is the writer's suggestion to English instructors, regardless of whether or not this particular examination has any value, that the fundamentals should not be overlooked. Emphasis on the fundamentals of sentence structure does not necessitate neglect of the literary values of the course. More actual teaching of the fundamentals and less discrediting of work done by someone else will eventually decrease the numerous criticisms of departments of English throughout the nation.

¹ D. W. Simonson and E. R. Coulson, *Thought and Form in the Essay* (Harper and Brothers, New York, 1933), p. 21.

The Science Curriculum of the Junior College

JAMES P. DAVIS*

There is a growing demand that introductory junior college science courses be adapted to the vocational needs of the students. Far too often the scientist teaching a course presents it without a thought of the future vocations of his students, giving the course with the purpose of training scientists in his particular field, in which only one or two students in his class may specialize. Students, too, are often allowed to register in any science they may choose without regard to the possible value of the various sciences in their vocations.

Many junior colleges, because of their small enrollment, cannot offer a wide range of science courses. The individual courses which are offered in many of these schools are put in the curriculum for various reasons, chiefly expediency, but rarely on the basis of the vocational needs of the students. In order to determine curriculum needs from this standpoint it is first necessary to ascertain the intended vocations of the junior college graduates. This information was requested of the science instructors and administrators of all the known junior colleges, in a questionnaire sent out by the writer. The scope of the inquiry was large enough to cover several points in science work.

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VOCATIONAL DESTINATIONS

Most junior colleges have no vocational records, and although replies on other items were received from about three-fourths of the junior colleges, only forty - two public and fifty-seven private institutions supplied any usable information on this point. From these replies, the average percentage of the graduates from these junior colleges entering each type of vocation was obtained. Except in a few private junior colleges which trained their students for a particular vocation, the percentages recorded by an individual junior college correspond closely with the average for the entire group. The distribution of the vocations for each of the sexes is shown in Tables I and II.

TABLE I
AVERAGE PERCENTAGE OF BOYS PREPARING FOR OR ENTERED IN DIFFERENT VOCATIONS

Occupation	Public	Private
Education	20.2	23.0
Engineering	13.9	5.3
Commerce (schools)	12.5	5.8
Business (without further training)	12.4	9.9
Wage occupations	8.1	3.9
Medicine	7.1	5.0
Law	6.0	4.2
Agriculture	5.5	6.5
Dentistry	4.3	3.0
Pharmacy	2.5	0.6
Chemistry	1.8	1.1
Journalism	1.4	1.0
Architecture	0.6	0.4
Ministry and social service	21.3
Other and unknown	3.7	9.0

TABLE II
AVERAGE PERCENTAGE OF GIRLS PREPAR-
ING FOR OR ENTERED IN DIFFERENT
VOCATIONS

Occupation	Public	Private
Education	43.8	48.0
Business (without further training)	9.8	4.5
Home making	7.4	29.1
Home economics	7.2	5.8
Commerce (schools)	5.7	4.5
Nursing	4.5	2.2
Wage occupations	4.4	0.8
Journalism	1.7	1.1
Social service	0.9
Other and unknown	15.5	3.1

It is evident from these records that, for girls at least, the junior college is serving to a considerable extent as a normal school, as many of the graduates are teaching in the elementary schools without further college training. This is true in the Southern states especially. The field of education also provides the greatest single vocation for the boys, with over one-fifth entering that work.

UNIVERSITY REQUIREMENTS

Having determined the percentage of the junior college students who are entering each vocation, it is next desirable to find the science which is required, or is of greatest value, for each vocation. The method chosen was to determine the science required for each vocation, training for which is received in schools of the university, by an analysis of fifteen university catalogues.¹

¹ The catalogues of the following universities were examined: University of California, Columbia University, Duke University, Harvard University, University of Illinois, University of Iowa, University of Michigan, New York University, Ohio State University, University of Pennsylvania, Princeton University, Stanford University, University of Texas, University of Washington.

The science requirements for the different colleges of liberal arts vary, but in general one or two sciences from a group are required. Half of the colleges require eight to sixteen semester-hours in one or two of the whole group of sciences. The other half divide the sciences into two divisions and require five or six hours in the physical sciences and five or six hours in the biological sciences, with additional work in either group to make a total of twelve to sixteen semester-hours. In one or two institutions reduction is made in the amount required for those students who have had high-school science. No individual science is specified for requirement in any catalogue examined.

The junior college must give two courses in science; one in the physical sciences, the other in the biological field, in order that its graduates may enter any liberal arts college with their lower-division requirements fulfilled.

The law schools require no more science than is required for their college of liberal arts, so if a junior college meets the liberal arts requirement in science it will also meet that of the law schools.

The same situation is true for the schools of theology—there are no science requirements above those of liberal arts.

The schools of medicine make more definite demands in science, and in general the requirements for the medical schools are standardized. Almost all of them require three or more years of pre-medical work, so if any requirement in science is not provided in the junior college it can be taken in the university previous to the medical school work. The minimum require-

ments for all medical schools are: one year inorganic chemistry including qualitative, one semester organic chemistry, one year general physics with laboratory work, one year animal biology. Many schools require in addition one or more of the following: one semester of qualitative in addition to the general chemistry course, one semester of quantitative analysis, one semester of comparative anatomy of the vertebrates, one semester of vertebrate embryology, and one semester of physiology.

Dentistry usually demands but two years pre-dental work, and in some cases but one year. The schools of dentistry as a rule require the following sciences: one year of chemistry, one year of physics, and one year of zoölogy. In addition one school requires a semester of comparative anatomy and two others require a semester of organic chemistry.

The science requirements for the course for nurses varies from a year of chemistry and a year of zoölogy to one year of general chemistry, one semester of comparative anatomy, one semester of qualitative analysis, one semester of organic chemistry, one year of zoölogy, one semester of botany, and one year of physics. The first set of requirements are the ones most often found.

The science requirements for journalism students are quantitatively not as high as for the students in their college of liberal arts. In most cases only a single year of science is required. One school requires geography.

The schools of agriculture put some of their purely vocational subjects in the curriculum of the

first two years. The general courses that most of the schools require in science are: one year chemistry, one semester to one year botany, one semester to one year zoölogy, one semester physics and one semester geology.

The home economics departments as a general rule require one year of chemistry and one year of zoölogy.

The engineering curriculum divides at the beginning of the second year into specialized phases of engineering, as civil, mechanical, electrical, and so forth, each with slightly different requirements. The science requirements, however, are quite similar for the main branches, but vary with such phases as mining or chemical engineering. In general, chemistry is required for the first year, and a year of physics the second year. In addition, a semester of mineralogy is required for chemical, mining, and petroleum engineering. Qualitative and quantitative analysis are also required in the second year for chemical engineering. Geology is required for mining and petroleum engineering. Two of the universities require one semester of geology for civil engineering.

For architecture, one semester of general chemistry, one semester of qualitative analysis, and one year of physics are required.

COMMERCE AND EDUCATION

Discussion of the science requirements for the schools of commerce and education has been left to the last, as most of the junior college graduates enter the fields of education and business, and a more detailed treatment is necessary for these two vocations. The schools

of commerce and education do not usually state any definite science as necessary for their course, so it was necessary to obtain the opinions of the administrators of these schools about the value of the different sciences for their students.

The schools of commerce have the same science requirements as do their colleges of liberal arts. Two of the ten schools whose catalogues were studied required in addition a course in geography. In order to determine what science is of most value to the students preparing to enter commerce schools, an expression of opinion was sought from ten outstanding administrators of schools of commerce. Returns were received from the entire group.²

Seven of the men rated the sciences first and second, and three grouped several sciences together for first place, as summarized in Table III.

Two of the men qualified their rating by saying that students who are going into production work or manufacturing would derive the greatest value from physics or chemistry, but all others in commerce would derive the greatest benefit from geology and physiography.

From the opinions of these ten men, it appears that a course in general geology and physiography is the most valuable science for the general commerce student, while the commerce student in the pro-

duction end of the business would derive the greatest benefit from chemistry or physics.

TABLE III
RATING OF THE VALUE OF EACH SCIENCE
FOR COMMERCE SCHOOL STUDENTS

(Rating by the seven men)

Science	No. of Men	
	Rating First	No. of Men Rating Second
General geology and physiography	3	2
General physics	1	3*
General chemistry	1	3*
General biology	0	2
Orientation course	2	0

(Rating by the three men)

Science	Number Indicating Science as One of a Group of Sciences of Highest Value	
General geology and physiography	3	3
General physics	3	3
General chemistry	3	3
General zoölogy	1	1
General biology	1	1
Orientation course	1	1

* In the second-place group, three men indicated that physics and chemistry are of equal value, so both these sciences are thus rated in the second-place column.

The schools of education do not require any specific science, as a rule, but have the same requirements as their college of liberal arts. Two schools recommend, and two require that the science shall be in the group of biological sciences. Another school requires two sciences, stating that one must be either botany or zoölogy. One school recommends three hours of zoölogy and ten of geology and geography.

As schools of education do not make any definite standardized requirement or recommendation for science, opinions from specialists in this field were obtained. Twenty specialists in teacher training were asked to express their opinions re-

² The schools represented by these men are as follows: University of Indiana, University of Iowa, University of Michigan, New York University, Northwestern University, Ohio State University, University of Pennsylvania, Stanford University, University of Texas, University of Washington.

garding the value of each science to elementary school teachers. Returns were received from fifteen but with the additional opinions volunteered by several men in the same schools of education, the total number responding reached twenty-four.

In attempting to evaluate each science according to the opinions expressed, an arbitrary value was set for each place (five points for first, four for second, three for third, two for fourth, and one for fifth), and the total points were computed for each science on this basis as summarized in Table IV.

TABLE IV
RATING OF THE VALUE OF EACH SCIENCE
TO ELEMENTARY TEACHERS BY 24
PROFESSIONAL EDUCATORS

Science	Total Points
General biology	94
General geology and physiography	43
Orientation course	31
General botany	23
General zoölogy	16
General chemistry	13
General physics	11
General astronomy	4

The specialists in education gave the biological sciences and the course in geology and physiography a high value for elementary school teachers, but placed chemistry and physics near the end of the list in value.

If we consider the vocations entered by a majority of junior college students, the sciences which are the best preparation for those vocations are biology or the biological sciences and the course in geology and physiography. Instead of these, however, the physical sciences are offered to a great extent, perhaps due to the fact that where chemistry or physics is preferred

for avocation, the particular science is required. It hardly seems fair to the majority of students to require them to take one science when another would be of greater benefit to them if it were presented.

ADULT EDUCATION IN BROOKLYN

Seth Low Junior College, New York, has been instrumental in the preparation of the first directory of adult education opportunities in the borough of Brooklyn. The Director of the Junior College served as president of the conference, and as chairman of the committee which had charge of the preparation of this publication. A wide circulation was given the directory through the generosity of the Greenpoint Savings Bank, which undertook its publication.

LECTURES AT KEMPER

In January, Dr. Chester M. Sanford, well-known lecturer and adviser on vocations, returned to Kemper Military School for his sixth successive annual visit. He remained on the campus for two weeks, lecturing on various vocations, such as medicine, engineering, law, and business, and holding personal interviews with all of the junior college cadets who desired his advice.

POMONA SCHOLARSHIPS

Pomona College recently announced ten competitive scholarships open to junior college students planning to transfer for further college work.

These scholarships are for the academic year 1935-36 and comprise one scholarship for \$300 and seven scholarships of \$150 each.

Do Junior College Students Study?

WALTER K. MAXWELL*

"The only thing your students know how to do today is to play!" So said a high official of the state of Arizona. He continued: "In 1898 we ran this whole state for what it costs to run the schools alone today. . . . We turned out better men than you do because we didn't have all the stuff to play with that you have. Boys and girls today don't know what *work* is."

In the same vein is the following Associated Press dispatch from New Orleans:

Do college students study? This question was answered here in a survey reported to the annual meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools by Dr. H. L. Donovan, president of Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College. . . .

Boys in college, to Dr. Donovan's way of reasoning, waste 32.26 hours per week, or 4.61 hours per day, and girls waste 31.05 hours per week, or 4.43 per day.

Dr. Francis P. Gaines, president of Washington and Lee University, saw too great a tendency toward social activities in the colleges.

"There is something fundamentally inconsistent in a college student searching for the Holy Grail of wisdom

in a rumble seat," he said. "The cost of education has mounted prodigiously, and all due to so-called activities in the colleges."

Such is a current conception of college, a conception held by large numbers of thinking, honest, apparently logical-minded people. As one of the hundreds of thousands of American college students who have learned from experience that abstinence from consistent application and study is absolutely impossible if one is to remain in college, the writer finds such false conceptions more than mildly annoying.

Faced by these and similar unsavory criticisms the writer determined to settle, at least in his own mind, the question as to how the majority of his fellow students spend their time. An informal canvass of students and faculty supplied an added incentive to a little more formal study of the question. "I am inclined to believe," said one instructor, "that students work a great deal more than even we teachers are led to admit. In many instances they study haphazardly and unproductively, perhaps—but nevertheless, they study."

"But nevertheless they study." What single suggestion could have given the writer more incentive? "After all," he reasoned, "I am not trying to prove that college is all work and no play. Neither am I comparing the study habits of students whose fathers work but eight

* Student, Phoenix Junior College, Phoenix, Arizona. The author wishes to express his appreciation to the faculty and student body of the Phoenix Junior College for their co-operation, to Professor J. N. Smelser under whose guidance this article was written as a semester paper, and to Dean H. B. Wyman for his invaluable aid and suggestion as the article was revised for publication.

hours a day, five and one-half days a week, to the students of twenty years ago whose fathers gladly met the demands of a six-day week and a twelve-hour day. I merely wish to give those people who draw their conceptions of college from its representatives as seen at the country club, or football game, an insight into the 'classroom college' where they study—'nevertheless'."

GATHERING THE INFORMATION

After the usual trials and tribulations of making a questionnaire the forms were ready for use. The writer attributes the splendid response given by a representative sample of fellow students¹ of Phoenix Junior College to the seriousness of purpose with which the study was made and the fact that the identity of the student filling out the form was not disclosed. Frankness and sincerity were the rule.

In general the questions were formulated to produce information upon two questions:

1. Does the "Rah-Rah" student—the apt characterization is that of one of the instructors—really exist? If so, in what numbers?

2. What is the college student's reaction to the many current, unfavorable conceptions of college and college life?

Questions on the use of the automobile were included in an effort to discover whether Phoenix Junior College is faced with an automobile problem. In American colleges gen-

erally, the automobile is considered with gravity. Evidence on this point is found in the ban upon student ownership or use of automobiles laid down by the officials of many colleges and universities, not to mention the implications of Dr. Gaines in the newspaper dispatch cited above.

One item of the inquiry brought forth the most interesting and varied responses. Each student was asked to express freely his reactions to four statements concerning college and collegians. The four statements follow:

If I were only a carefree college student.

My college days were the happiest of my life.

The college student of today is apparently searching for the Holy Grail of wisdom in a rumble seat.

College life today is nothing but a round of shows, parties, and dances.

It should be noticed that the second statement of the series is of an entirely different tone from the others. This was inserted with much anticipation; nor was the writer disappointed in its results.

No reference was made in the blank to the grades of the students. It is obvious that questions regarding grades would complicate a questionnaire immeasurably, and that even after they had been computed they would not be subject to comparison unless the conditions under which the grades had been earned were also subject to comparisons. But there is yet another and even more important reason why grades were left out of the study. No attempt is being made to compare or even to establish the ability or the intelligence of schoolmates. The writer is merely endeavor-

¹ The questionnaire was given to selected, representative classes. The students were given time in class to fill out and return the questionnaire. The questionnaires were unsigned and the students were assured that no instructor would be permitted to see their answers.

oring to determine if college students today do spend much of their time in study.

SUMMARY OF STUDENT REPLIES

With this explanation the returns from the questionnaire are for the most part self-explanatory as summarized in Table I and Table II. They represent student estimates and of course are subject to some error on this account.

TABLE I

STUDY HABITS OF PHOENIX JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENTS

Group	Hours of Study per Day	Hours of Study per Week	Student Load in Hours*
All students.....	3.5	20.0	15.6
Men	3.1	19.1	16.0
Women	4.2	22.7	15.5
Sophomores	3.5	19.1	15.4
Freshmen	3.5	20.7	15.8
Club women	3.9	20.7	16.9
Club men	2.2	11.7†	15.3
Students in three or more school activities	3.5	20.3	16.5

* One course in high school counts as three hours.

† This figure shows such an obvious discrepancy as to suggest the possibility of an inadequate sample. Club men do considerably better than average work.

Table II gives some insight into activities of students outside of academic lines.

Sixty-two students of the 156 do not attend dances. If this ratio is representative it would seem that approximately 39 per cent of the Phoenix Junior College student body seldom or never attends dances. Fifteen students gave no indication that they ever attended shows. Several definitely stated that they did not. Approximately 10 per cent evidently seldom or never go to a show. Sixty-six students (42 per

cent) stated that they were willing to work if they could get a job such as college students usually hold and with the prevailing standards of pay. Forty-nine students (31 per cent) were working, regularly or

TABLE II

TIME DEVOTED TO SHOWS, DANCES, AND AUTOMOBILE RIDING

Group	Shows per month*	Dances per month†	Minutes per Week	
			per Day in Auto-mobile	for Pleasure
All students .	3.3	2.9	66	84
Men	3.4	2.6	75	66
Women	3.4	3.2	63	92
Sophomores .	3.7	2.6
Freshmen ...	3.0	3.2

* Omits returns from those students who do not attend shows.

† Omits returns from those students who do not attend dances.

irregularly, for remuneration. Of the forty-nine students who were working, twenty-five contributed a share of their earnings toward the support of the family. The total sum of hours worked per week by the forty-nine students who were employed is approximately 239, or 4.9 hours per student.

Idealism and pessimism, stories of tragedy and revelry, were found written side by side as the writer continued to delve into the life pictures scarcely hidden between the lines. One young man at one time seems to have had high ambitions which have been recently blasted beyond recognition by financial reverses. Unable to secure work or to aid himself to any great extent by any means, with almost every avenue of recreation and improvement cut off, his future, as he sees it, is not one many would care to contemplate. Two successive papers,

both written by freshman women, have only this in common. One tells the story of a gay life, unfrustrated ambition, and untold opportunities. The other girl writes that for several reasons she has little chance to "go out" or to become socially at ease by mingling with her schoolmates. She inoffensively bemoans her "lack of appeal to those of the opposite sex," as well as the "mistreatment and lack of consideration that boys show to girls," concluding with: "most boys today aren't living the right kind of life." These two girls probably sit side by side in class.

For fear that these exceptions may appear the rule and lend to college the very aspect that is under consideration, the writer cites the next paper. Here's the kind of boy our fathers tell us lived in the days when they went to school—a reincarnation of a Horatio Alger hero. One show and one dance a month suffice for his recreation and keep "our Jack" from becoming a dull boy. On seven days a week he works six hours a day; he supports the family, and finds time to round out his education by belonging to a social club.² The fact that this student does not carry a full schedule may be explained by the regulations of the college covering such cases.

DO THEY WASTE THEIR TIME?

And now—do college students waste their time? Do college students study? Dr. Donovan, in the press dispatch already quoted, stated that the average college student wasted over thirty-one hours a week or more than four and one-

half hours per day. Are his estimates substantiated in Phoenix Junior College? The answer will depend to a large extent upon how one characterizes "wasted time."

The average student at Phoenix Junior College studies, according to his own testimony, twenty hours a week outside of class. He attends class fifteen and one-half hours a week. A minimum estimate of the time devoted to such necessary items as assemblies and conferences with instructors will bring the student's weekly average for school work to a total of not less than thirty-eight hours. This average young man or woman, not yet mature enough, according to statute, to accept citizenship, is barely within the limits of a forty-hour working week which the American Federation of Labor insists is the maximum for the best health and efficiency. Why do not our college students demand the restrictions of a college NRA (CNRA, perhaps) with a thirty-five-hour week such as the President originally declared a part of the American industrial code of a year ago? Perhaps the answer lies simply in the fact that the true student accepts no code limitation of his time in his quest for knowledge.

As yet, however, there has been no accounting for any time which the student might allot to "activities." It should be noted in passing that a division was made in the questionnaire between the activities connected with social organizations and those of a more academic nature. Suppose the critics were given the advantage of the doubt and were granted the debatable point that purely social activities contribute little to education and that we

² Corresponds roughly to the fraternity in the university.

confine our discussion to those extracurricular endeavors of an obviously valuable nature. In this class would be student government, athletics, debate, dramatics, journalism, and those clubs designed to aid and enlarge student advancement in particular courses. The writer is confident that even Dr. Gaines would agree, with perhaps a single exception, that in view of the value of these activities in creating interest in academic work, furthering study, and rounding out the development of students, there has been little tendency to overestimate their importance.

According to Table I, the "average student participating in three or more school activities" other than purely social ones not only studies as much or more than the average student but takes an hour more work. It would be fair to assume that there were times in the year when this student's three or more activities would entail as much work outside of school hours as would his assignments. When does he find time for all of these things—regardless of how worth-while they are? That's what the mass of college students often wonder. The student himself may well wonder—if he ever has time to pause for conjecture. Certainly such young men and women have little time for unprofitable amusements or worse! And yet the misinformed taxpayers who fight most vigorously to drastically reduce those appropriations³ which make the college a pleasant place to work and play are the same citizens who view activities beyond

the jurisdiction of the college with the greatest misgiving and alarm.

"COLLEGE YEARS ARE HAPPY"

One cannot escape wondering about the student's own reaction to his college experience. In general his evaluation was favorable. "Certainly college years are happy years!" wrote one co-ed. "Without knowing what awaits me in the future I should say they are the happiest years of my life. But aren't the happiest years of our lives the most productive?" This was the keynote struck by many students. These are joyful years, but they would not be so if they were misspent, wasted years. And how the pictures of college life as a mad pursuit of pleasure were "pooh-poohed" by the students! Certainly, if their own testimony is correct, college for them is not a great whirl of pleasure-seeking and recreation. Their reported visits to halls of amusement do not exceed six a month. Movie houses and dance casinos were not built at the expense of such as these.

The writer realizes that conditions in Phoenix Junior College may not be strictly comparable in the aspects investigated with those of larger, four-year institutions. But when it is considered that this institution is a public institution in every sense with entrance not contingent upon examination or grade requirement, the findings take on a more widely significant aspect. For, if a junior college without entrance limitations finds its students applying themselves generally, might not other colleges, with entrance qualifications and supposedly a more select group of students, find even better study habits within their

³ All student activities at Phoenix Junior College are financed by an incidental fee of \$10 per semester charged to all students.

student bodies? The writer is confident that college students can be credited with more application to studies than is generally supposed by platitudinous publics and didactics educated in a different age.

In the opinion of the writer, criticism of college life is not so much a product of over-critical minds as of an unfortunate vantage point from which to view the activities of these actually human beings called students. Frivolity, intemperance, and impropriety are common to many walks of life. But the college student is the victim of disadvantageous contrasts. When we see the butcher or baker or candlestick-maker and identify him as such he is usually at work. He is smiling and agreeable because you are a prospective customer. When we see him in his less-studied and more natural moments, he is identified simply as another pleasure-seeker and not as "one of those butchers or bakers" or "just another candlestick-maker." Unfortunately, the public usually sees the student at play and rarely at work. It identifies him as a student at the football game, the dance, the show; when the work-a-day world is behind him, when the day's tests have been passed, or flunked, and the morrow's assignments are forgotten in the exuberance of a keen appetite and a clear mind.

How different might be our conceptions if one would go to school with the same student the next morning. He would find there, in all probability, more smiles and less headaches than in any other workshop in the world. He would see students snatching odd moments from the lunch hour or intervals between classes to study and to

utilize profitably every spare second of time. Here he would find students grouped around some professor as they stay after class to delve more deeply into some interesting problem or to attempt some unassigned experiment upon their own initiative. There in the next room will be a club planning a field trip. From the auditorium come strains of music or the sounds of a play in production. In the library countless volumes are perused.

Here are the students few people see. Here they are in their workshops, their offices, their laboratories. What immeasurable good could be wrought if the men and women who always see these men and women at play could get an occasional glimpse behind the scenes into real college life, into the "Classroom College" where we laugh and play but where we study—"nevertheless."

BUILDING PLANS

Plans are being made at Sacramento Junior College, California, for the construction of a new library and classroom unit at a cost of \$100,000. Plans for the complete development of the quadrangle call for an estimate expenditure of approximately \$500,000.

We have only lately begun to realize the significance for the curriculum at the junior college level and for the purposes of that curriculum of the vast influx of youth into the earlier years of our colleges, universities, and junior colleges. Few will doubt that there is a close relationship between that influx and the purposes and provisions now emergent.—LEONARD V. KOOS, in *General Education*, p. 106.

The Improvement of College Teaching*

College Marking Systems

GRACE E. CARTER† AND WALTER C. EELLS‡

INTRODUCTION

Because of the variety of grading systems in use in colleges and universities; because of the problems involved in an equable distribution of grades within an institution; and because of marked discrepancies in teacher judgment and in standards of attainment, it has been claimed that we have no marking system worthy of the name system, at present, in our college and university work. At a time when colleges and universities are defining their aims, and when the use of scientific measurement in education is rapidly growing, do practices existing in institutions of higher learning justify this statement?

Recent studies of marking systems indicate that the most generally adopted system is that of the letter grade. This system necessitates the defining of what each letter signifies. At present, there is no general agreement between institutions, or between faculty members in the same institution, as to the percentage of students which under normal conditions should receive each grade. Six different plans for such distributions, based upon the normal curve, are reported by Spence

and Miller, and recently many articles have been published describing attempts to solve numerous problems which have arisen with the practical application of these plans. The ranking system, in experimental stages in a number of colleges, is a proposed solution to one of the major problems raised in that it proposes to arrive at a fair composite student grade through compensating for the inequality of the value of the grades of the different instructors by statistical means. The instructor simply ranks the students in his class, and then he either reduces the variation of his grade from the accepted college standard by applying a statistical correction which has been plotted from his previous practice, or he hands his ranks to an administrative officer who reduces them to comparable units. T-scales, coefficients of variations, and "standard keys" are some of the forms used for this purpose.

The question may arise, Why should an instructor be interested in the marking system since it is largely an administrative matter? Marking systems are based upon the assumption that the grades of the instructor are fair measures of the accuracy of the performance of students in their classes. Much evidence has been accumulated, however, which shows that teachers' marks are largely subjective, are unreliable, and are based upon a wide variation of standards for like achievement. There is lack of uni-

* For introductory statement, explanatory of this series of articles, see *Junior College Journal* (October 1934), V, 26-27.

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formity. Some instructors mark leniently. Others are noted for severe marking. Some instructors base their marks entirely upon achievement, while others include such factors as attitude, industry, improvement, and regular attendance. Personal appearance, charming manner or lack of it, handwriting, and "apple polishing" are other considerations which sometimes enter into grading.

Conflicting opinions exist as to the possibility of harmonizing these differences in classroom marking procedures and of arriving at an absolute standard of measurement in each subject which may be used by all teachers in giving grades. Adherents of this plan would separate character traits from achievement and would measure achievement by such instruments as standardized achievement tests, comprehensive examinations, and new type tests. Others fear too great standardization; see the possibility of a detrimental effect upon student attitude through the emphasis on marks; and say that such a method of grading will tend to make teachers non-cognizant of individual differences among students. A number of instructors entertaining such views recommend the use of nothing except "plus" and "minus" in grading.

Whether we arrive at a marking system worthy of the name will depend upon the values which we attribute to the functions that grading serves. If grades aid the student in making a just estimate of his work and in stimulating him to further work; if grades make apparent to the instructor his own deficiencies in teaching; if they function in determining eligibility for honors, for fellowships, and for recommendations for positions, it would appear

that grades do serve worth-while functions, and further experimentation by college faculties would seem advisable.

QUOTATIONS

The ideal marking system is one in which students will be rated on objective standardized tests of achievement. Until we have reached this ideal, it is very important to recognize that marks indicate only relative achievement in the small group in which they are earned. (MILLER, p. 299.)¹

If the new-type examination was used for examining and the normal distribution curve was used intelligently for assigning marks, many of the difficulties and injustices pertaining to marking would disappear. (BILLET, p. 53.)

The manner in which marks are distributed to pupils vary enormously from teacher to teacher and from school to school. No one realized the seriousness of the situation until specific tabulations and comparisons were made. . . . A more direct and crucial method of examining the variations of teachers' marks than by the tabulation of the grades as distributed by different teachers is to measure experimentally the differences in the values assigned by different teachers to the same pieces of work. (STARCH, p. 426.)

The study of new data combined with the re-study of some of Starch's data seems to discount entirely the belief that there is little or no uniformity in teachers' marks. If teachers, giving instruction in the subjects and on the points included in the examination, mark the answers, very great uniformity is found. (BOLTON, p. 38.)

The first step in improving a marking system is to limit the mark to achievement only. If this were done, "A" rating in any given subject would mean superior achievement in that sub-

¹ For more detailed reference for this and succeeding quotations, see bibliography following the questions.

ject, which may or may not be accompanied by promptness, excellent attitude toward teacher, regularity of attendance, and superior conduct. . . . There can be no question of the importance of these character traits, but they should be rated independent of achievement, except as their presence or absence affect actual achievement. (MILLER, p. 299.)

Every step we take away from the wholesale method of handling students, every concession we make to the end that we recognize individual differences, that we treat each student to some extent as an individual, brings us closer to recognizing that these elements enter in each attempt to grade students' work justly. (JAMES, p. 739.)

Intelligence tests show not only that students as a group tend to progress somewhat uniformly from year to year in ability to do school work but also that the elimination which takes place throughout the school course is of such nature that the ability of a considerable number of students at any particular level of advancement educationally, if charted in the form of a frequency polygon, tends to be distributed in accordance with a normal frequency surface. In the light of these considerations there seems to be slight justification in awarding higher grades to juniors and seniors. (REEVES and RUSSELL, p. 134.)

Student opinion is almost unanimous in attributing considerable responsibility to the marking system for the fact that very rarely do students think of education as anything more than following instructions. (KELLY, p. 128.)

If more attention were given in the faculty meetings to a discussion of the distribution of marks and the injustice both to student and to other members of the faculty of extremely high or low marks; if during the year a conscientious effort were made to establish definite standards of accomplishment as a basis for granting credit; and if all members of the faculty were re-

quired to study a chart showing the distribution of the marks of each member for the preceding quarter, with the suggestion that those persons with distinctly skewed distributions should explain the reason for such distributions; it is likely that the great variability noticeable at present would largely disappear. (WRIGHT, p. 616.)

We hope to avoid the accumulated ignorance that comes from passing a student with a "C" grade which means that he sees through a glass but darkly and that he has accumulated ignorance at the rate of 20 per cent a semester, a fatal procedure in such cumulative subjects as mathematics. (McNUTT, p. 112.)

QUESTIONS

1. What functions do grades serve? Measurement of ability? Pupil motivation? Recommendations for honors, positions, etc.?
2. Are teachers' marks reliable? What factors other than actual achievement tend to influence the teachers' marks? Should these factors be controlled?
3. What weight should superior native ability, previous preparation in the subject, actual amount learned during the term, or outstanding effort have in determining the final grade?
4. Should the final grade be based solely upon what the student knows at the end of the term? If so, by what means shall this be measured?
5. Should a student able to do better work than others be held to superior accomplishment?
6. Should excused absences affect the grade? Unexcused absences? "Cuts" immediately preceding or following vacation periods?
7. To what extent will the development of better measuring instruments such as standardized

achievement tests, new-type examinations, comprehensive examinations, etc., increase the reliability of teachers' marks?

8. Can reliable measures of desirable scholastic and character outcomes other than achievement be developed? Have any such been developed?
9. If we haven't arrived at a solution for reliable measurement, as yet, shall we abandon grading entirely and adopt a system of "pass or fail"?
10. Is there a danger in overemphasizing marks that the students will concentrate more upon following instructions rather than developing initiative and self-reliance?
11. Should a theoretical form for the distribution of marks be adopted? If so, how literally should it be followed?
12. Some instructors claim that marks depart from the theoretical distribution in their subject because of selective factors. Can evidence of such selection be obtained, measured, and weighted so that future grades in that subject will be distributed on a fairer basis?
13. Should the grade of "A" mean the same in all departments? Can it mean the same? Also other grades?
14. How do the distribution of grades of the upper classes differ from those of the lower classes? Of elective courses from required courses? Of one department from another? Are these variations justifiable?
15. Would the practice of distributing the tables of frequencies of marks given by individual instructors to the faculty as a

whole aid in correcting the variations in procedure?

16. What improvements in their marking system are claimed by colleges using the normal curve as a basis for the distribution of grades? Are these claims justified?
17. Comment upon the following practices used as incentives for high scholarship: (1) the giving of an extra credit for each five honor points earned above "C" average; (2) the charging of fees according to the grades earned the previous semester.
18. Compare the "ranking system" of Oberlin College with the one suggested by Spence in *The Improvement of College Marking Systems*. Do you consider these schemes better than the generally accepted plan of letter grades?
19. What criteria would you select as a basis for a marking system in your own institution? In your own class? How rigidly would you follow this?
20. Is an instructor ever justified in raising a student's grade, after consulting official records of past work, in order to keep that student from failing? To keep him from losing a scholarship award? To maintain athletic eligibility?
21. Is grading more difficult in some departments than in others? For example, in physical education, in band, or in orchestra? Should grading be restricted to "passed" or "failed" in such fields?
22. Is publication of a student's scholastic achievement in an official college bulletin desirable? (This is done in some institutions.)

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The Junior College World

CULVER BECOMES JUNIOR COLLEGE

Culver Military Academy (Indiana), one of the best-known institutions of this type on the secondary level in the country, has decided to add junior college work. Development of a junior college course as a part of the Academy curriculum was approved by the Board of Directors of The Culver Educational Foundation at its meeting early in December. For a year or so the Academy will probably not undertake to offer more than one year of work on the college level. As the number of students increases in the field of Culver graduates and of high-school graduates who wish to enroll for college work combined with the Culver training, provisions will be made for a second year's work on the college level, providing the two full years offered in the standard junior colleges. In the meantime the chairman of the faculty and several others of the faculty will undertake a detailed study to make specific recommendations to the Foundation about adapting the junior college to Culver's particular situation, and its needs in personnel and equipment.

STUDY OF GRADUATES

The Committee on Articulation with Junior Colleges, of the University of Chicago, is conducting an extended study concerning the graduates of junior colleges in the Middle West. The study is partly qualitative and partly quantitative. The factual basis concerns an occupational and educational follow-up of

a large group of junior college graduates in the different institutions. The chairman of the committee is Dean E. T. Filbey. Other members are G. A. Works, L. V. Koos, H. W. Prescott, W. H. Spencer, and H. G. Shields. Professor Shields is executive secretary of the committee and has been visiting a large group of junior colleges in connection with the study.

WORK OF REGISTRARS

The January *Bulletin of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars* contains an article by A. Samuel Wallgren, president of the Northern Illinois Junior College Conference, on "The Status of Work of Registrars of Junior Colleges in the United States." A similar paper read by Dean Wallgren before the Illinois State Registrars' Convention was stated by the secretary of the association to be the best paper of the meeting.

PHI RHO PI CONVENTION

The seventh annual convention of Phi Rho Pi, national junior college forensic society, is scheduled to meet with the Virginia Alpha chapter, Virginia Intermont College, April 16-18. A program commensurate with the expanding interests and activities of the society has been prepared. Roy C. Brown, of Virginia Intermont, is president of the national organization this year.

JUNIOR COLLEGE IN GREECE

The American Junior College for Girls, located at Hellinico, Greece, began work last October with the

largest enrollment the college has ever had, 244 students, of whom 70 are boarding students. Every available space in the plant, even including the furnace room, is used all day. This year the college, after balancing its budget, has been able to build a much needed laundry and two piano practice rooms. One of the students, Miss Ellie Panayotidou, shared with a boy from Denmark first honors, involving a prize of \$300, in the Zelan Van Loan World Fellowship Award, conducted by the Oecumenical Youth Commission of Geneva, for the best essay on the subject, "Christ and World Friendship," written by a European student between the ages of fourteen and twenty.

POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS

Advance sheets of the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1930-1932* report an enrollment of 36,541 postgraduate students in the high schools of the country in 1932. Evidently most of these are doing work which is essentially of junior college grade in connection with their local high schools. Many of the present existing junior colleges are the outgrowth of similar postgraduate enrollments in the earlier years of the century.

ADULT EDUCATION AT PATERSON

The College of Paterson (New Jersey) this year is sponsoring several adult education activities. One of these services is the co-operation with the Italian Society of Paterson, the college providing classrooms for instruction in Italian language and literature. The classes in Italian are popular, attracting about ninety persons. The college provides one instructor and the society supplies the

others. A second activity is a course of lectures by Professor Herbert Robinson on "Contemporary Drama." In this case, the audience is smaller and comprises local school teachers and individuals having a serious interest in the subject, coming from their travels abroad and their ability to patronize the theater regularly. The more popular lecture series is the one offered by Dr. Theodore Rothman on "Understanding Human Behavior." This series includes demonstrations, formal lectures, and visitations. Some of the topics treated are: An Introduction to Human Behavior, How Our Glands Make Us Behave, Psychology of Everyday Life, The Psychology of Sex, The Nervous Person, The Insane Person, The Problem Child, The Psychology of Suggestion, How to Prevent Mental Disease. About forty persons attend these lectures, about 20 per cent being nurses from local hospitals. The lectures in psychology are of a psychiatric character, since Dr. Rothman is a psychiatrist in hospital service.

PASADENA TERMINAL COURSES

At Pasadena Junior College, California, it is reported that 35 per cent of the student elections are in terms of terminal cultural courses, 16 per cent are in the semiprofessional, business, and technical terminal courses, and 49 per cent in the certificate or upper-division college and university preparatory courses.

STATE AID IN MICHIGAN

An effort is being made to secure state aid for students enrolled in the public junior colleges of Michigan. The present state aid act provides for forty dollars per elementary pupil and sixty-five dollars per high-

school student. The proposal is to amend this act so as to furnish similar but larger support for students in the junior colleges of the state. Last year eight of the nine public junior colleges in the state reported an enrollment of 2,395.

CALIFORNIA SUPPORT

Figures recently made public by the California State Department of Education show that 48.8 per cent of all the current receipts of the state government for 1933-34 were used for the state contributions to the support of public schools. The elementary schools received 29.7 per cent, the high schools 18.0 per cent, and the junior colleges only 1.1 per cent. The state apportionment for junior colleges, amounting to \$1,639,738, was 51 per cent of the total cost of operation of the institutions during the year, the remainder being met by local taxation.

BROADCASTING DEBATES

A series of intercollegiate debate broadcasts has been instituted by Seth Low Junior College (New York) and New York University. The first of the series, discussing the prevention of the international shipment of munitions, was broadcast over Station WEVD January 12.

EXTENSION AT PITTSBURGH

Five "emergency education" schools have been organized in five of the high schools in the city of Pittsburgh, primarily to meet the needs of the large number of unemployed young men and women who are graduates of the local high schools. The schools are referred to in *Pittsburgh Schools* as being on a "junior college basis." The sub-

jects offered this year include English, public speaking, history, sociology, science, and college algebra. The total of class enrollments in the five schools is reported as approximately nine hundred.

"LASELL LEAVES"

The current issue of *Lasell Leaves*, the attractive literary quarterly published by the students of Lasell Junior College (Massachusetts), is an anniversary number commemorating the sixtieth year of the publication. Samples of the contributions appearing in the different decades, from Reconstruction days onward, are reprinted in this issue.

JUNIOR COLLEGE HISTORY

In successive issues of *The Independence Student*, published by the students of Independence Junior College, Kansas, has appeared a very interesting and informative series of articles on the history of the local junior colleges. Possibly similar articles in other college papers would help to develop institutional consciousness and loyalty.

PERMANENT RECORD SYSTEM

At Rochester Junior College, Minnesota, a complete new record and filing system has been installed this year. A Kardex System has been installed for permanent records. The record sheet is printed on tracing paper so that blueprints can be sent out for transcripts from now on. The new system also includes a personnel record showing complete information on the student, such as home life, test percentiles, administrative action, faculty action, faculty personnel estimate, and alumni information.

Reports and Discussion

BETA PHI GAMMA CONVENTION

Meeting at San Bernardino Valley Junior College during the recent Thanksgiving holidays, one hundred members of Beta Phi Gamma, junior college journalism fraternity, together with their older brothers of Alpha Phi Gamma, senior college journalism group, celebrated the first birthday of the younger group and the fifteenth of the older.

Co-host with San Bernardino was the University of Redlands, and the full program of events was equally divided between the two campuses and cities. Lee Shippey, famous columnist of the *Los Angeles Times*, was the chief convention speaker, and gave an inspiring address on the problems of the young journalist.

Junior college publications contests were conducted, and in both the year-book and newspaper competitions, publications of Colorado Women's College, Denver, Mu chapter, were adjudged winners.

The convention was officially closed with a dinner dance at Arrowhead Springs Hotel and a theater party at Padua Hills.

Fresno State College and Visalia Junior College were awarded the 1935 convention, to be held during the Armistice holidays.

DIRECTORY CORRECTIONS

The following additions and corrections should be made in the 1935 Directory of the Junior College, as published in the January issue of the *Journal*.

ILLINOIS

Add: People's Junior College, Chicago: dean, H. Glasser; coeducational; private; organized 1933; accredited by the State University; 12 full-time, 8

part-time instructors; enrollment, 1933-34, 249 freshmen, 138 sophomores, 5 special students.

WASHINGTON

Add the following information regarding Spokane Valley Junior College: president, G. H. Schlauch; accredited by the State University; 8 full-time, 5 part-time instructors; enrollment, 52 freshmen, 18 sophomores, 2 special students. Change: Centralia Junior College from Private to Public.

WARD-BELMONT CLUBS

Ward-Belmont, a private junior college in Nashville, Tennessee, uses a system of social clubs in which every member of the student body, whether boarding or day student, is a member of one of the fourteen clubs. For the boarding students the school has provided and maintains ten club houses. These are grouped together at the rear of the campus in what the students call Club Village. Each club house is equipped as a comfortable, tasteful home except that there are no bedrooms. Each has a large living-room with a fireplace, a small room for a library, a writing-room on the upper floor, and a kitchen. The members of the club buy and maintain the furnishings. The fifteen dollar club fee covers this expense as well as the cost of activities and janitor service.

There is a week of rushing at the beginning of the school year. The Dean of Residence meets the new students, tells them of the various clubs, explains the system of rushing, and assures them that even if they are not asked to the club of their choice, they will be in a club with some of their friends. When the girls sign their choice of clubs, they also give a list of their friends among the new girls. The Dean of Residence

has two meetings with the club presidents, going over the list of new girls with them at the first meeting, and at the later meeting talking over the girls that are most rushed as well as those who are least rushed. By general consent the rushing of any one girl is restricted to not more than four clubs, and the girls who have not been rushed are placed on rushing lists. Each of the clubs has an open house the first Saturday evening, and the new girls are welcomed at all of them. Each club makes out a list of preferred new members, and the final arrangement based on the preference of both the individual and the club is made in the office of the Dean of Residence. Ninety per cent of the girls join the club of their choice, and the other 10 per cent are placed always with some of their friends. The numbers in the clubs are kept equal, and the club with few vacancies to fill of course has more chance of getting only the girls of its choice than has the club with many vacancies. There are a few high-school girls in each of the clubs.

The girl finds in her club a homelikeness that no dormitory can give, and she can often find there a greater measure of privacy than her suite affords. Most of her social life centers in her club. The club has its weekly meetings, and gives one large dance during the year at which obligations to friends on the campus may be paid. Groups of friends have informal breakfasts or luncheons or dinners together at the club. Chaperoned by some member of the home department, the girl may entertain her young men friends there during the week, or with a group of friends give a dinner dance once or twice during the year. The whole club has an open house to which young men are invited.

The club is a center of more than social interest. There is a strong athletic interest in the school, and though there are no games with other schools, there are many games between clubs. There is strong competition for the an-

nual award of the athletic cup, and usually there is a team from every club for every sport. There is also competition for the scholarship cup and for the citizenship cup. In counting points for citizenship, consideration is given to athletic participation, academic attitude, attitude toward rules and regulations, attitude toward campus responsibilities, and creative attitude. Every phase of the girl's life is thus considered of importance in her club. The religious element is added there, also, for once a month a vesper fireside service is held in each club house.

Co-ordination between the clubs is brought about by the monthly meeting of the sponsors with the Dean of Residence. There is a faculty adviser for each club, and her influence is a vital element in club life. Every effort is made to select sponsors of the mind and spirit to give wise and balanced leadership. Such leadership does not check student initiative, but on the other hand serves to release it.

There is also a monthly meeting of the Dean of Residence with the Presidents' Council, which includes presidents of all the major organizations of the school. There is a separate council of day-student presidents, but there is an occasional meeting of the two councils.

The presidents of all the organizations form an honor group. They are responsible to themselves for their own good conduct. Any infringement of rules by them is not dealt with in the regular order, but the girls are pledged to report themselves to the highest tribunal. No special privileges are given them except in the case of a high-school girl who holds office and is thereby given college social privileges. The leadership of a boarders' club is the most important place of leadership because it is so intimate and its constructive or negative influences are felt so keenly.

The day-students have their own club house, each of the four clubs having its own club room and having

weekly meetings during school hours. Each club has a monthly social gathering and a more formal social event once during the year. Day-students do not entertain men on the campus. Since their social life is cared for by their own homes, their school clubs are less finely organized than are the boarders' clubs, and play a smaller part in the lives of the members. These clubs, however, compete for the athletic, scholastic, and citizenship awards. All the clubs contend for the same scholarship and athletic cups, but the boarders and day-students have separate citizenship cups.

Ward-Belmont tried the sorority system, but abandoned it years ago. The club system has proved thoroughly satisfactory, and has become an integral part of the school life.

EMMA I. SISSON
Dean of Residence

WARD-BELMONT JUNIOR COLLEGE
NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE

MICHIGAN LIBRARIES

At the last meeting of the Michigan Association of Junior Colleges an address on "Junior College Libraries in Michigan" was given by W. W. Bishop, librarian of the University of Michigan, and chairman of the Carnegie Advisory Group on Junior College Libraries. Secretary G. E. Butterfield, of Bay City Junior College, has furnished the following abstract of this address:

Mr. Bishop emphasized certain needs of junior college libraries in Michigan which this brief study has shown. He laid particular stress on the fact that, in comparison with students of the ordinary liberal arts college, junior college students in Michigan are under a considerable handicap because of the shorter hours of opening of the junior college libraries. These ordinarily close at either four or five o'clock in the afternoon and are not open on Saturday or Sunday. The result is that junior college students are decidedly limited in the time which they may spend in the college library and must depend on

either the local public library or else the college library must provide a very large number of certain books for circulation. While the students may possibly get definitely assigned readings done, they have far too little opportunity for collateral reading not necessarily required and are given no chance to pick and choose authorities on the subject of study. Longer hours of opening, then, seem the greatest need of junior college study.

Another need of considerable importance is the desirability of an entirely separate reading-room for the junior college, if not a separate library. Certain of the Michigan junior colleges are operated in connection with high schools and in some the only specific provision for junior college students is the assignment of certain tables in the reading-room. The importance of a junior college library, and certainly junior college reading-rooms separate from the high-school library and the high-school reading-rooms, was emphasized. This separation probably requires a separate staff for the junior college library, which in itself is highly desirable.

Further, Mr. Bishop pointed out that the general reference collections in all of these colleges are fairly weak and in only two of the six may they be considered as reasonably adequate. There was found a definite lack of good atlases and the more expensive reference books. The holdings were checked against a list of standard reference books which might properly be considered necessary in a junior college library, and no one of the colleges had much more than half of these titles. One of them had only a fifth of the 265 titles against which their holdings were checked. It seems evident that there is a great need for strengthening the reference books and books of general interest aside from those needed in the conduct of courses in the college. In other words, the junior college library should be a college library and not merely a classroom library or an expansion of the library of a moderate-sized high school. It was found that few of the junior college libraries subscribed to a good list of current periodicals, and that fewer bound the back files of these journals. Four of the six colleges studied apparently have been unable to find money for binding their files of journals, even when they take a fairly adequate number. It is quite impossible to do reference work of a good sort in any college library with-

out direct access on the part of students to fairly long files of our better journals. It seems almost incredible that these should not have been provided.

Instruction in the use of the library seemed to be lacking or inadequate. This instruction is of great importance and it should take place in both the high school and the junior college. It is difficult to arrange, it requires time which can ill be spared from regular courses, and yet the success of the student in college and university work depends very largely on his ability to use college and university libraries and their bibliographical apparatus.

The speaker further dwelt on the relations of the public library and the junior college library and on the necessity of providing books of general interest even though the subjects are not taught in the college, and of the value to the junior college of a thoroughly competent and well-trained librarian.

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

The *Carnegie Report on Higher Education in California* recommended the establishment of a State Council on Educational Planning and Co-ordination." This body, composed of nine prominent citizens of the state, including representatives of the state university and the state Department of Education, has spent many months in studying the major problems affecting the relationships between the different units of the educational system. It has recently formulated a statement of basic principles and of the respective functions and programs of the junior colleges, the teachers colleges, and the state university. The portion pertinent to the junior colleges is given below:

The junior college has a distinct and important field, and the years of forced unemployment and complexity of modern life are making its cultivation increasingly urgent. A considerable part of the graduates of our high schools, while disinclined toward the industrial trades, are not adapted to advanced academic studies. They should not go to a liberal arts college or university; they will not go to a trade school; yet some way must be found

to meet their needs. They should have an opportunity to acquire some training which has economic value. In addition, they should have some understanding of the social, economic, and industrial conditions of the modern world and of the background of their history, to make them adjustable to its rapidly changing conditions. Finally, they should be introduced to interests which will give meaning and value to their leisure time. Training for these three objectives would seem to be the major function of the junior college.

The second function of the junior college should be to provide for those young men and women whose interests are intellectual and who should have further academic training but who are unable to bear the expense of attendance at a four-year institution, or who may, in spite of general fitness for higher education, have certain deficiencies in high-school preparation that prevent their meeting university entrance requirements at the time of high-school graduation. This second function all junior colleges in the state now perform, too many of them this function only. In exercising this function the junior college should act as a selective agency. Thus, through an effective guidance program it should direct some of its students toward universities, some toward trade schools, and the majority toward those vocational pursuits which constitute the larger part of our complex social organization and for which neither university, college, nor trade-school training is a proper preparation.

The third function of the junior college should be to serve as cultural centers providing adult education for the people of their communities. Every junior college should be a regional institution offering opportunities in afternoon and evening classes for those who wish further cultural development or training along the line of their vocations, and drawing to the community through its own faculty and from outside sources the material of a more abundant life. Much of this work could be in co-operation with the University Extension Division.

For the adequate performance of the functions herein described the following program is outlined for the junior college.

1. Strong semiprofessional and vocational curricula. These courses should be designed to give the student in two years sufficient skill to meet the demands of

employers. They should be based on a careful study of the needs of different occupations and advice from skilled workers and employers.

2. Curricula for life needs. These courses are to be planned for satisfactory completion in two years. They should cover in an exploratory way entire fields of thought, not merely sections of fields. The stage-by-stage method of presentation used by four-year colleges is not suitable because of lack of time to develop and correlate the different stages, and because the young people who go to junior colleges are as a rule not particularly interested in the more abstract phases of the regular academic program.

3. One or more lower-division curricula modeled after those of the higher institution to which the particular junior college sends most of its graduates who go farther with their education. Supplementary to these there should be a transfer curriculum designed to repair matriculation deficiencies and train students for success in lower-division work.

4. Adult education such as that now provided by several junior colleges.

ROCHESTER LIBRARY

A study has been made of the number of books checked out of the Rochester Junior College library each week from the opening of school on September 10 to the week ending November 17, 1934. It included only reserve and fourteen-day books, and did not show the use of reference books or magazines. It should also be pointed out that junior college students make use of the Rochester High School library, which is located in the same building, and the city library, which is located about two blocks away.

During this period 154 students were enrolled in the Junior College. A total of 2,016 books were removed, or an average of 13 books per student. The average books removed per day amounted to 40.

It was found that women removed more books than men, the average for women being 15.2 while the average for men was 11.2. A distinct difference was also apparent between the

number of books removed by sophomores and freshmen, the average for sophomores being 20.5, whereas the average for freshmen was 10.4, or about half as many.

In point of the actual number of books removed the record was as follows:

No. of Books Removed	No. of Students
0	15
1	10
2	11
3	7
4	7
5	9
6 to 10	22
11 to 15	29
16 to 20	9
21 to 25	8
26 to 30	10
31 to 35	4
Over 35	10

G. S. KILBY, Registrar

ROCHESTER JUNIOR COLLEGE
ROCHESTER, MINNESOTA

FERA AT LOS ANGELES

When FERA descended like manna from Washington upon the poverty-stricken college students of the United States it was apparent at Los Angeles Junior College that we needed to use all of the available social agencies that we could summon to help us discover who of the many applicants for our FERA funds were the neediest. The population of a tuition-free municipal college in any place will be a fairly accurate cross-section of the city which supports the institution. In Los Angeles in 1934 and 1935 this means that a considerable number of families to which our students belong are supported by the county and that in the next group of poverty-stricken students the family wage-earner is working on an SERA job from which the income is \$7 a week for two persons, \$9 a week for three persons and \$14 a week for six persons.

In the spring of 1934, faced with a large grant of federal money for aid to students, the placement secretary of

the college dusted off her social-work experience of a considerable time ago and with the help of Miss Eva Hance, then executive secretary of the Los Angeles Council of Social Agencies and now field social worker for the Pacific Coast FERA, was able to make Los Angeles Junior College a member of the Los Angeles Social Service Exchange. Thereupon every student applying for FERA work filled out in duplicate an identifying slip which was mailed to the Social Service Exchange, and on the following day one of these slips was returned with a list of all the contacts for aid which the family of the young person had ever made. Since our college had at first no social workers to investigate our cases it was invaluable to be able thus to attach ourselves to local investigations already made by trained workers.

Immediately county officials looked us up to discuss the effect of FERA money given to a student upon his family when it was being supported by county aid. Mutual understanding between the college and the county was achieved and everyone concerned agreed that since educational expenses are over and above subsistence this federal aid to the student should not lessen the county aid to his family. To enable a person to attend college involves expenses for transportation, for more clothing than is needed by stay-at-homes, for books and other necessities over and above room and board.

The terms of Federal Emergency Relief to all the colleges in the United States are the same. At present these scholarships may be granted to 12 per cent of the student body of an institution as enrolled October 15, 1933. An average of \$15 per student is granted the college receiving aid. A student to be eligible must carry three-fourths of a regular program, be of good character, possess ability to do high-grade work and be unable to attend college without this assistance. Students earn this money by doing socially desirable work on or off the campus. They may

not work more than 30 hours in any week nor more than 8 hours in any day and may not receive less than 30 cents an hour for their services. In September, 1934, the federal orders allocated the money equitably between the sexes and gave 50 per cent of it to entering students, but both these orders were later modified and the jobs can now be given according to need regardless of sex, position, or class.

At Los Angeles Junior College we are nearing the end of our second term in the use of this aid. Both the students and the faculty members have learned a great deal more than they at first knew about the use of this new piece of social machinery. Projects suggested by the faculty members have grown more realistic, new and better uses for student help have been originated, valuable off-campus projects have steadily increased and students have become more workmanlike and responsible and some permanent positions for students have grown out of off-campus allocations. The Placement Office can more readily discriminate between values than formerly. There is one situation it is apparent which will never be entirely serene. The allocator is obliged to be concerned with the poverty of the student while the project employer will always urge his need for a skilled, intelligent, and competent workman. In some instances the FERA plan obliges already overworked but altruistic faculty members to add to their tasks by taking on a troublesome greenhorn. Willy-nilly we are all being socialized whether we had planned to be or not.

A mere listing of some of the on- and off-campus projects, each one of which provides a wage of 36 cents an hour, explains with brevity much of the work being done. In and about Los Angeles Junior College the following tasks engage several hundred students: library work; engineering; gardening; secretarial work; stenography; typing; reading; briefing; clipping; filing; indexing; statistical

work; taxidermy; translating French, Spanish, German; copying music; cataloguing; preparing annotated bibliographies; drawing maps, charts, diagrams; art work, both copying and original—coloring, lettering, mounting; policing the athletic field and the college grounds; first-aid work in the gymnasium; cleaning bones; making slides, media, and solutions; preparing cultures; photography; building instruments for the aviation, engineering, and psychology laboratories; organizing musical programs in foreign languages; caring for equipment; life-saving at the pool; accounting; checking frequency of words in Mexican newspapers; tool-room attending; sorting type in cases, and other printing jobs; janitorial work; and boiler-room work.

Off the campus students work at the following jobs: supervising on elementary school playgrounds; boy scout work; work with clubs; coaching and supervising athletic activities for the Y.M.C.A.; copying climatological data for the Weather Bureau and tabulating and compiling facts for the Weather Bureau Airport Station; acting as hosts and hostesses; doing clerical work at Newman Hall, which is the club house for the Council of Churches; acting as pianist and director of tennis at a settlement house; correcting counselor's test; calculating the vocabulary in primary reading textbooks; and assisting in nursery schools for the Bureau of Research of the Board of Education.

At Los Angeles Junior College for the fall term of 1934 we were entitled to funds for 531 students. Later orders permitted us to spread this money over a larger number of people. We have thus far, January 3, 1935, allocated these work-scholarships to 636 people and we have a grant of \$7,965 a month to distribute, almost \$80,000 a year. Some students need only a few dollars a term to get them over their economic hump but most of the recipients of aid require this money for the entire school year. The greatest

number of students work for 7 hours a week, thus earning \$10.92 per month. Students are not pressed to stay on the job as they are at some of the tuition-charging institutions where the FERA funds are used to pay fees and where the college auditor inquires of both the student and the employing professor why the earnings are not up to contract. A falling off in the work hours occurs here always at the mid-term and other examination periods.

We have learned that it is socially and educationally wasteful to grant federal aid to people with poor scholarship and little persistence, for though carrying only the required 12 units out of the usual 16 units such workers do not maintain the scholarship required. Because the Los Angeles schools have no visiting teachers doing social work among the families of the children who attend the high schools, practically nothing is known about the economic circumstances of the homes from which our entering students come. In September 1933 we had 900 applicants for federal aid when the college opened—and before the term was over 1,300 applicants—and of this number we had accurate information about only those whose families were then or recently had been on the county. We have never been equipped with the clerical and social help that a sound investigation of scholarship and poverty would involve. An over-worked Registrar's Office could not, at the beginning of the school year, get grades to an understaffed Placement Office which was carrying this sudden load of FERA management without any additional help save inexperienced SERA and FERA workers, neither of which groups could give the continuous hours that such a heavy and necessarily hurried job required. We do not flatter ourselves that we have avoided a certain amount of victimization by chiselers, but we early discovered and parted with a few racketeers. Home visits have more often proved us less accurate in our deci-

sions to refuse aid than in our credulity. We need twenty competent home visitors, instead of one. We should know the facts about every student whom we accept or reject and this we cannot do in our present understaffed condition.

At present the government grants its aid to cities, counties, states, and educational groups who in accepting the money are obliged to assume the expense of administering it. At a time when public schools are drastically retrenching, a sound administration without the necessary workers is impossible. The private colleges have a comparatively easy time administering their FERA funds because, since a more prosperous group attend them, the money with them is used largely for tuition and decisions of need can be arrived at more easily. The locality we serve is distinguished by excessive and long-continued unemployment. If this sort of aid to students is to continue for years as some of our national leaders are suggesting it will, some one—national government or school authority—should provide the social service necessary so that high-school graduates will arrive at our junior colleges with their social and economic histories attached to their educational record.

Everyone concerned feels keenly the paucity of information that school people have of the home backgrounds of our high-school and junior college population. Since the United States apparently is going to carry on most of its commercial and industrial work without the aid of people under the age of twenty-one, an added responsibility is being thrown upon the junior colleges of keeping up with this thoroughly American plan of caring for the unemployable young men and women who have advanced in age from the eight-year-olds of our pioneer days to the twenty-one-year-olds of this day. At Los Angeles Junior College we are doing constructive work in this experimental way of life. Educators are

forced to share the woes of their communities and for the faculty knowledge has been deepened and broadened to greater wisdom under the terrific pressure of administering FERA to a troubled student body.

VICTORIA MCALMON,
Placement Secretary

LOS ANGELES JUNIOR COLLEGE
LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

HOW STUDENTS SPEND TIME

This question had been lurking in my mind for some time, but it was only recently that I decided to seek its answer. Using the simple expedient of asking my students to cooperate by keeping a "time record" sheet for each day of the week for one week, I soon amassed a wealth of material which comprised the answer to my question. The "time record" sheet was of the type suggested by Dr. Karnhauser's valuable booklet *How to Study* as a device to help a student prepare a study plan suitable to his personal needs.

Briefly, the tabulation of the data showed the following daily averages:

Sleep	8 hours
Mental work	7 hours
Recreation and rest.....	3 hours
Physical exercise and work...	3 hours
Meals	2 hours
Miscellaneous	1 hour

Of course, mental work included attendance in classes. Although there is nothing very unusual in these averages, the individual papers constituting diaries or autobiographies of the students in my classes are on file, and an occasional perusal of specific cases is an intimate, helpful aid in my work with my students.

Perhaps the greatest benefit of this project has been to the students themselves, many of whom have come to me praising, in effect, the truth of the maxim of the ancient Greek, "Know thyself."

L. J. ADAMS

SANTA MONICA JUNIOR COLLEGE
SANTA MONICA, CALIFORNIA

Judging the New Books

MARY MILLS PATRICK, *A Bosphorus Adventure*. Stanford University Press, Stanford University. 1934. 284 pages.

The subtitle of this book, *A History of Istanbul Woman's College, 1871-1924*, indicates the scope of treatment. The author went to Constantinople as a teacher in 1875 and served the institution till 1924. From 1890 to her retirement she was president. This book is, consequently, an intimate history of the evolution of Istanbul Woman's College from its founding in 1871, depicting with detail and clarity its Near East setting, its gradual growth to sound financial status, its independence from the American Board of Foreign Missions to operation under a charter granted by the Massachusetts legislature, the increase from a beginning student body of three to one of several hundred representing the Balkan and eastern Mediterranean countries, the development of curricula including Turkish, Greek, Armenian, Italian, German, French, and Bulgarian language departments, as well as English, mathematics, science, and history, and its emergence, along with the Turks themselves, from a position of oppression, discouragement, and limited opportunity to one of freedom to serve the cause of enlightened education.

To the layman only casually informed on life in the Near East the intimate descriptions of life in the old Turkey contain surprises, e.g., the position of women, especially as to their legal status and rights (p.

10 ff.); the profession of begging (p. 16); and the predilection of the Turk for humor (p. 68 ff). The background for the history of the college is treated, not only in the opening chapters, but also in appropriate interspersions throughout. At times the reader becomes lost in what would pass as sections of a good book on Near East travel.

The book contains a very detailed account of the interest and assistance of Americans in the history of the college, of the anxiety in conducting a school in what was practically an enemy country during the war, of the student government operation and the activities of the alumnae, and of the establishment of the School of Medicine.

A Bosphorus Adventure is a valuable account of the establishment and development of an educational institution under very adverse circumstances. It well illustrates the power of devotion to ideals and conviction of purpose. The literature on comparative education has included studies of European, Latin American, and Far Eastern countries, but little has been written about the Near East with the exception of Bulgaria. Although *A Bosphorus Adventure* is concerned with a college operated under American auspices, the extent to which the educational philosophies and practices in Turkey, Greece, Armenia, Bulgaria, and Albania impinge on the work of the Istanbul Woman's College necessitated the inclusion by Miss Patrick of so much material dealing with education in those

countries that the book constitutes a valuable addition to the literature of comparative education.

FLAUD C. WOOTON

CHEVY CHASE JUNIOR COLLEGE
WASHINGTON, D.C.

JESSE B. SEARS (editor), *School Administration in the Twentieth Century*. Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California. 1934. 83 pages.

Here we have an imposing and slightly austere title for a decidedly friendly and thoroughly readable little book which contains about as fine a review of the accomplishments of school administration in the present century as one is likely to find anywhere in any little volume of its size.

The lectures by Frank W. Thomas, president of the State Teachers College at Fresno, California; by Joseph Marr Gwinn, until recently Superintendent of Schools, San Francisco; by John K. Norton, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University; by Ralph W. Swetman, principal of the State Normal at Oswego, New York; and by Clyde M. Hill, chairman, Department of Education, Yale University, were given at Stanford University on June 6, 1933, honoring Professor Ellwood P. Cubberley, retiring after more than thirty years of service as dean of the Stanford School of Education. The last of the six divisions of the book is Professor Cubberley's response to the many toasts offered to him and Mrs. Cubberley that day. To former students of Dr. Cubberley, this personal glimpse makes the little volume priceless. To others, it is a bird's-eye view of how the desires, ambi-

tions, aspirations, and ideals of a far-seeing educator came to be realized.

This little volume has a place in that ponderous generality spoken of as the field of school administration. What place does it have? It summarizes. It tries to tell the hearer, for the articles were listened to by many persons before they were read in print, where twentieth-century school administration is today. To some extent we are told where administration has been. Studiously, the speakers avoid telling with anything resembling definiteness where it might be going. Condemnation for this should not be forthcoming, however, as the speakers but stuck to their subjects. Their subjects? Frank Thomas: "Twentieth-Century Developments in State School Administration"; Joseph M. Gwinn: "Twentieth-Century Developments in City School Administration"; John K. Norton: "Twentieth-Century Developments in Research in School Administration"; Ralph W. Swetman: "Twentieth-Century Developments in the Administration of Teacher Training"; Clyde M. Hill: "Twentieth-Century Trends in the Teaching of School Administration." The discussions are clear, readable, scholarly. Necessarily, they are general in nature rather than specific; all-inclusive rather than detailed.

Were we to editorialize about this little book there would be a strong inclination to say that it should be in the library of every public-school administrator. We wouldn't put it there because it would prove to be the answer to the administrator's troubles. It wouldn't. It is too retrospective in its viewpoint and far too general in its scope to be of any

particular, specific aid. We'd say that administrators and instructors in the field of education should read it because, like a good Christmas story, it tends to fill one with hope for the future and cheer for the present as one looks down the trail school administration has taken in the past to the more clearly defined roadway of the future.

EDWIN J. BROWN

KANSAS STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
EMPORIA, KANSAS

W. W. CHARTERS (editor), *The Stephens College Program for the Education of Women*. Education Service Series, Number 1, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri. 1933. 62 pages.

When Dr. Charters became, in 1920, director of research at Stephens College, he undertook a study of the activities of women as a starting point for the development of a functional curriculum for a woman's college. The purpose of this bulletin, the first of a proposed series dealing with the making and development of this functional curriculum, is "a comprehensive overview of the complete program of training . . . in relationship to the College policy as a whole." The methods of the investigation consisted of analyses of the activities and needs of women college graduates—both home-makers and professional women.

On the basis of these analyses, seven areas of subject-matter have been determined as the required courses of the new curriculum. The first of these, "Communication," includes, in addition to the traditional forms of expressional English, English Hurdles (a series of test and practice exercises on the mechan-

ics), a voice clinic for improving the quality of voice, and the theoretical supervision of English by all teachers. The second area, known as "Physical Health," attempts to provide for each girl's needs through a wide range of activities and sports. Two phases of this work should be of special interest: the "siesta," a rest period of one hour each day for all students, and the "scientific eating campaign" under the supervision of the Home Economics Department, which attempts to make the student conscious of the advantages of correct eating. Area three, known as "Mental Health," is provided for in the General Psychology course. According to Dr. Charters, the emphasis is placed on a modification of the conventional course in psychology so the problems of the students receive much time and consideration. The particular method by which this principle is applied in the course at Stephens is not clearly stated. It would seem, however, that the clinical approach would be satisfactory only if the groundwork of principles and generalizations had been carefully laid down and the emphasis placed upon the normal rather than the abnormal. "Civic Relations," which includes economic, political, and social problems, are treated in the fourth unit. The stated purpose "is to prepare the way for an active, intelligent interest in social and civic affairs in after-college activity" (p. 27). The fifth unit, "Aesthetic Appreciation," is gained through the Introduction to Literature course with the materials organized to include literature, art, and music. Each of these areas has gone through an experimental period, first offered as elective courses

and later incorporated into the required core, or "put on a production basis." The two remaining areas, "Consumption" and "Integration" (philosophy of life) are still in the experimental stages.

Other facets of this program include: ample provision for elective courses, for professional courses of terminal and pre-professional nature, for personality development, for religious expression, and for organized extracurricular and permanent leisure activities which the faculty foster and guide.

In background, abilities, and interests the student body presents a fair cross-section of women in colleges of junior college rank. Sixty-five per cent of the graduates attend a senior college, a fact which reinforces the observation of investigators that the preparatory function remains the outstanding function of the junior college. Among the faculty, the level of preparation and experience is especially high for a junior college, and the institution presents evidences of having a staff that is both capable and in sympathy with the program of the research division and with the policies of the administration. Whether one subscribes as wholeheartedly as Dr. Charters to the idea of functional curricula or whether his concept of usefulness is entirely adequate as a goal for education is beside the question. One must still commend the administration and Dr. Charters for a willingness to experiment, for out of such experimentation must come something of lasting value to the junior college movement and to the education of women.

ISABEL YOUNG-MASTEN

COLORADO WOMAN'S COLLEGE
DENVER, COLORADO

MARY PAXTON KEELEY (editor),
Christian College Prize Plays,
Christian College, Columbia, Missouri. 1934. 127 pages.

The director of an educational theater reads every new collection of one-act plays with eager interest because, despite the scores of short plays published every year, it always seems singularly difficult to find plays which meet the needs of student actors. Faced with the selection of a single play, the instructor-producer often reads a dozen or more scripts before he comes upon one which he can use satisfactorily; consequently, the experienced play-reader will be agreeably surprised to take up a collection such as *Christian College Prize Plays*, in which so large a proportion of the group possesses positive merits.

Of the six plays, all of which were written by students in the English classes at Christian College, only one, *Dust*, is of so little significance as to seem negligible. Another, *Women in the House*, deals with a hackneyed theme without bringing to the treatment either a fresh point of view or a new method; since neither excellency of writing nor depth of characterization balance these deficiencies, few directors will be interested in it as a possibility for production.

Each of the other four has definite merits which recommend it for a director's consideration. In spite of a weak conclusion, the most effective play in the collection is *Moon Bums*, the sketch of a half-hour in the lives of four transient women as they huddle together waiting for a passing freight train. Implicit in this grim little play are the hard judgments with which embittered youth arraigns a misguided social

order and the tragic results of the frailties inherent in weak human beings. *The Front Door*, a tragedy drawn from Mid-Western America, is a competent and sympathetic study of rural characters too little known and understood. *Alsace in Missouri* is the inept title of a somewhat deft little comedy which depicts the confusions arising out of the interstate hatreds still cherished by some of the oldest generation. *The Hero*, although it seems to promise more than it actually fulfills, is an effective study of characters under the strain of forest fire danger in the Wisconsin woods and should challenge the interest of student actors.

All the plays except *The Front Door* have been presented by Christian College students, and four of them have won awards in play tournaments. Consequently, the director seeking material dealing with the American scene will find in the collection not only new material but also tested material.

The merits of the plays in the Christian College collection derive principally from the freshness of the material, which is drawn, as the editor, Mary Paxton Keeley, says in the introduction, directly out of the writers' own lives and from the sincere and sympathetic treatment of that material. Because their makers were earnestly concerned with specific conditions of our contemporary national life, the plays possess a vitality, a significance which go a long way toward balancing whatever faults may grow out of inexperienced craftsmanship.

The publication of this volume by Christian College not only should serve, as the foreword says, to encourage these students to continue

to develop their talent but also should indicate a path of development for student writers in other junior colleges. Except in rare instances, most of the experimentation with classes in special forms of writing has been left for the upper divisions of the senior colleges, and the junior colleges have followed pretty closely the standardized courses in English composition. These plays are evidence of the accomplishment which may be made by lower-division students when they are properly guided and stimulated and should encourage the spread of creative writing to other junior colleges.

TEMPE E. ALLISON

SMITH COLLEGE
NORTHAMPTON, MASSACHUSETTS

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED

- J. B. JOHNSTON, *Education for Democracy*. University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, Minnesota. 280 pages. (To be reviewed in a later issue.)
- H. M. KALLEN, *Education Versus Indoctrination*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois. 24 pages.
- H. B. LEMON and H. I. SCHLESINGER, *Sound: A Guide for Use with Educational Sound Pictures*. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois. 40 pages.
- W. S. PALEY, *Radio as a Cultural Force*. Columbia Broadcasting System, New York. 29 pages.
- G. D. STODDARD and B. L. WELLMAN, *Child Psychology*. The Macmillan Company, New York. 419 pages.
- R. G. TUGWELL and L. H. KEYSERLING, *Redirecting Education*. Columbia University Press, New York. 273 pages.

Bibliography on Junior Colleges*

2785. GERRITT, HARRIET I., "A Course of Study in Hygiene and Sanitation for Junior College Women," Seattle, Washington, 1933, 90 pages.
Unpublished Master's thesis at the University of Washington.
2786. GRAY, RUTH A., "Bibliography of Research Studies in Education, 1932-1933," *United States Office of Education*, Bulletin No. 7 (1934), 349 pages.
Includes references to 31 studies dealing specifically with the junior college field.
2787. GRISSOM, PRESTON B., "The Development of John Tarleton College," Canyon, Texas, 1933, 160 pages.
Unpublished Master's thesis at the West Texas State Teachers College.
2788. HILTON, MARTHA EUNICE, "The Dean of Women in the Public Junior College," Syracuse, New York, 1934.
Unpublished doctoral dissertation at Syracuse University. To be summarized in part in article by the author in a later issue of the *Junior College Journal*.
2789. HITCH, A. M., "Here Comes the Junior College," *Cosmopolitan Magazine* (August 1934).
"No educational movement in America ever equalled it in number of schools and pupils involved and in soundness of reason unless it was the great movement to college following the World War. . . . Why this popularity, why this junior college mindedness?" Answered by outlining the four chief functions of the junior college.
2790. JOHNSON, B. LAMAR, "The Librarian as an Associate in College Instruction," *School and Society* (November 10, 1934), XL, 632-34.
A description of the methods of coordinating library work and instruction at Stephens College, Missouri.
- * This is a continuation of *Bibliography on Junior Colleges*, by Walter C. Eells (United States Office of Education Bulletin [1930], No. 2), which contained the first 1,600 titles of this numbered sequence. Assistance is requested from authors of publications which should be included.
2791. JOHNSON, ROBERT E., "A Proposed System of Junior Colleges for the State of Oklahoma as to Aim, Organization, and Content," Stillwater, Oklahoma, 1933, 47 pages.
Unpublished Master's thesis at the Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.
2792. KOOS, L. V., "A Compilation of Useful Evidence," *Journal of Higher Education* (November 1934), V, 461-62.
Review of C. D. Hardesty's *Problems and Practices in Housing the Junior College Program in California*. See No. 2666.
2793. LAIDLAW, LOIS WELLS, "Organization of Business Education in Junior Colleges," Los Angeles, California, 1934, 185 pages, 53 tables, bibliography of 64 titles.
Unpublished Master's thesis at the University of Southern California. Based upon a study of recent publications of 178 junior colleges in all parts of the country. Semiprofessional training is emphasized. Treatment includes secretarial, accounting, general business, merchandising, and economics curricula. Findings show a lack of definiteness in objectives and a consequent lack of uniformity in the various business courses in junior colleges.
2794. LARSON, GRETCHEN OLENE, "The Present Status of Speech Education in the Junior Colleges of California," Los Angeles, California, 1933, 95 pages, 34 tables, bibliography of 28 titles.
Unpublished Master's thesis at the University of Southern California. Based upon a study of thirty-three public and fourteen private junior colleges in the state. Approximately one-third of the space is devoted to a general history of the junior college movement. Numerous tables give type and amount of speech instruction given in the colleges studied.
2795. LEMBKE, GLENN LLOYD, "Study of a Four-Year Junior College, with Special Reference to the Curricular Program in Terms of Students' Interests

and Needs," New York, N.Y., 1933, 188 pages.

Unpublished doctoral dissertation at New York University. Based upon a detailed study of Pasadena Junior College, principally replies received from 2,887 students. Purposes of the study were (1) to determine the nature and extent of the existing curricular and extracurricular activities, (2) to determine the nature of the student body, (3) to determine the students' interests and needs, (4) to determine the degree of institutional fulfillment of these needs, and (5) to ascertain the phases of the curricular program which may effect the desired institutional fulfillment and to make appropriate recommendations.

2796. LIDE, EDWIN S., "Housing the Junior College in California," *School Review* (November 1934), XLII, 710-12.

Review of C. D. Hardesty's *Problems and Practices in Housing the Junior College Program in California*. See No. 2666.

2797. MCLELLAND, MAY, "A Study of the Relationship of the Traits Measured by the Bernreuter Inventory to the Adjustment Problems of a Group of Junior College Students," Raleigh, North Carolina, 1933.

Unpublished Master's thesis at the North Carolina State College.

2798. MERCER, HOWARD GLENN, "The Financial Status of Intercollegiate Athletics in the Junior Colleges of California," Los Angeles, California, 1934, 122 pages, 36 tables, 4 figures, bibliography of 36 titles.

Unpublished Master's thesis at the University of Southern California. Twenty-four institutions were studied to secure budget procedures that had proved successful under various conditions as to size, geographical location, and amount of receipts. Definite recommendations for junior college practice are made.

2799. MERIAM, J. L. (chairman), "Secondary and Junior College Textbooks of 1931-1933," *Society for Curriculum Study News Bulletin* (April 9, 1934), V, No. 3, 76 pages (mimeographed).

Includes annotated list (pp. 44-75) of 383 textbooks for junior colleges in the fields of agriculture, art, business education, English, foreign languages, guidance, health and physical education, homemaking, industrial and mechanical

subjects, mathematics, music, natural science, philosophy, psychology, and social studies.

2800. OXLEY, BERNICE REED, "The Public Junior Colleges in Oklahoma," Boulder, Colorado, 1933.

Unpublished Master's thesis at the University of Colorado. Abstract published in *University of Colorado Studies: Abstracts of Theses for Higher Degrees*, 1933, p. 61. Finds that the academic curriculum of the Oklahoma public junior colleges is designed primarily to meet the requirements for entrance to standard colleges and universities.

2801. QUIETTE, VIRGINIA H., "An Analysis of the Cost of Supplies in Pasadena City Schools, 1932-1933," Los Angeles, California, 1934, 59 pages, 15 tables, bibliography of 9 titles.

Unpublished Master's thesis at the University of Southern California. Includes a study of costs in the Pasadena Junior College. Also studies costs of departments per student enrolled.

2802. SHAW, OTTO E., "Development of the State Supported Junior College in Oklahoma," Stillwater, Oklahoma, 1933, 86 pages.

Unpublished Master's thesis at the Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.

2803. STAFFELBACH, ELMER H., "Junior College Education in California," *Sierra Educational News* (December 1934), XXX, 17-28. (Also available as a separate publication, from California Teachers Association, 155 Sansome Street, San Francisco, price 25 cents.)

Written by the Director of Research of the California Teachers Association, largely in the form of a catechism of forty-five specific questions and answers. Treats the fields of history and development, theory, support, organization, purposes and activities, and future of junior college education.

2804. STEPP, WALTER MARIAN, "A Comparative Study of Teacher, Curriculum, and Financial Support of Oklahoma State Junior Colleges," Stillwater, Oklahoma, 1933, 114 pages.

Unpublished Master's thesis at the Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College.